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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 4, 1900.

The Week.

We are getting out of China, bag and baggage. A legation-guard, larger than usual on account of the unusual conditions, is to be left in Pekin, but the orders significantly state that these troops are to be under the command of Gen. Chaffee. That is to say, Waldersee may give orders to British or French or Russian soldiers, but not to American. The remainder of our army in China is to be shipped to the Philippines as speedily as may be. If we were ever in the concert of Powers, we are now out of it. The other nations may wrangle and jangle as they did in the affair of Crete, and let China plunge into anarchy while they debate; we wash our hands of the whole business. The Germans may chuckle or snarl at us; England may express her pained astonishment; Russia may wonder what has become of her American bed-fellow, but we snap our fingers at the lot of them. The United States takes its own independent line. Appropriating the old Italian boast, we say, "America farà da sé." In all this we have merely clung to the historic American policy. A foreign entanglement was dangled before us, but we have shunned it as we would the plague. We have kept our pledges. The world was cynically expecting us to display bad faith, but we have shown good faith. We said that we were sending an army to China for a specific purpose, and lo! we are not keeping it there for another and unavowed purpose. Meanwhile Mr. McKinley may not see, but others will not fail regretfully to perceive, that the same wise and American decision which he has reached in China might have been made in the Philippines, and might have taken us as quickly and honorably out of the islands as out of the Middle Kingdom. Nearly every argument which has been adduced in favor of our setting about the subjugation of the Filipinos, could have been urged as a reason for our staying indefinitely in China.

Senator Morgan of Alabama has made his first speech of the campaign, and he lends the weight of his position as the Democratic leader in the upper branch of Congress to the theory that the financial question is the immediate one. He said nothing at all on the issue of Imperialism, for two obvious reasons; first, that he bluntly declared, some weeks ago, that "there is no such issue"; and, secondly, that he has from the outset supported the Republican policy in the Philippines. Mr. Morgan said that

"finance is the most interesting topic to me and to the people," and he proceeded to make a free-coinage speech of the familiar sort. For example, he declared himself in favor of silver, as a circulating medium, "because it is the money of the poor man." Another reason why he favors free coinage is that, while silver is circulating, it draws no interest, whereas the paper dollar is constantly drawing interest, which some one is paying.

Carl Schurz's speech on Imperialism on Friday evening drew a large audience to Cooper Union, and will reach one far larger through the press. It was the most searching analysis of the course pursued by the Administration towards the Philippines which has yet been made, and it should be read by everybody who would master the record of that extraordinary policy. Whether one agrees with his conclusions as to political duty in the pending campaign or not, every candid man will welcome the opportunity to learn how the situation appears to one who has thoroughly studied our Constitution, our political history, and our national character.

Mr. Bryan easily makes his point when he reviews the record of the Republican party, as he did in his speech at Yankton, South Dakota, on Friday, and convicts it of "inconsistency" in regard to the greenback and the silver questions. There is no answer to such an indictment. The Republican party must plead guilty to the charge. The wonder is that so shrewd a politician should not see that, the more thoroughly he convicts his opponents of inconsistency, the more strongly does he commend them to the confidence of the country. The Republican party was once terribly wrong on the greenback question, and, a quarter of a century ago, passed an Inflation Bill, which would have done vast harm if Grant had not vetoed it; but it is right on the greenback question now. It was once terribly wrong on silver. William McKinley voted for the free coinage of silver in 1878, and as "leader of the House" in 1890 he carried through the Silver-Purchase Act, which President Cleveland had to convene Congress in extra session to repeal, three years later; but he is right on the silver question now, and so is the Republican party. On the other hand, the Kansas City platform expressly reaffirms the "16 to 1" plank in the Chicago platform of 1896, and Bryan himself declared at Scotland, South Dakota, on Friday, that "we stand to-day opposed to the gold standard as we did then."

Mr. Oswald Ottendorfer, in an inter-

view in the *Tribune*, puts his finger on a sore spot in Mr. Bryan's record, considering the latter's opposition to militarism. Mr. Bryan enlisted for the war with Spain at a time when his services were not needed. In order to get into the service with his regiment, it was necessary to crowd out another regiment previously organized and desirous of entering. Not only so, but Mr. Bryan had promised to use his influence in favor of the first regiment. Instead of doing so, he raised, or assisted to raise, a second one, of which in due time he became the Colonel, and then his regiment was, by his influence, put into the service in place of the first, and against its protest. Can it be doubted that Mr. Bryan's aim in this movement was political rather than military? Although he never saw actual war in consequence of his enlistment, he promoted militarism to the extent of his ability, and under the circumstances disqualified himself for appearing on the stump as an opponent of militarism at any time thereafter. Mr. Ottendorfer has rendered a public service in calling attention to this evident mark of the trickster in Mr. Bryan's career.

Senator Hoar's *North American* article again lays the damning charge at Bryan's door of having wickedly helped to ratify that horrible, that fatal treaty which the wisest, strongest, and most beloved President negotiated. The Senator impales himself on his own logic with all his former delightful unconsciousness. He has, however, heard at last of a fact which was well known at the time. This is, that the Republican managers would not have allowed the treaty to come to a vote at all unless they were sure of ratifying it. They had only to wait a month, and then their greatly increased majority in the new Senate would enable them to do what they pleased. When Gorman, some three weeks before the vote actually was taken, offered to have the Senate polled at once, Senator Davis, in charge of the treaty, objected. The President wanted no chances taken, and would have waited, if necessary, till after the 4th of March. All this, we say, was matter of notoriety at the time. It was repeatedly brought out in the press. But Senator Hoar now loftily waves it all away with a simple "I do not believe it." Does he really believe, however, something which he himself says in this article? He declares that the ratification of the treaty "made it the Constitutional duty of the President to reduce the Philippine Islands to subjection." The reason we ask if Senator Hoar really believes this is, that, in his speech in the Senate of April 17 last, he explicitly asserted

(and this was more than a year after the ratification of the treaty), "I maintain that the holding in subjection an alien people, governing them against their will for any fancied advantage to them, is not only not an end provided for by the Constitution, but is an end *prohibited* therein."

Prof. Goldwin Smith has sent out a small pamphlet in which he warns the American people against the dangers of Imperialism and plutocracy, and especially against partnership with England in the lust of empire, and in the greed of gain which is supposed to come through an Imperialist policy. Personally he does not believe that England has ever got back the cost of her colonies, not even in the case of India, if we count all the expense she has incurred and still incurs on its account. None the less is she deceived by the glamour of foreign conquest and possession, and now she would like to have the United States for a moral backer, imitator, and ally in that kind of work. Professor Smith finds an element in American society willing to join the Tories of England in the policy of external aggression. It consists of the multi-millionaires "whose social centre is shifting more and more from the United States to monarchical and aristocratic England, where they can take hold of the mantle of high society, get more homage and subserviency for their wealth," etc. In other words, a social influence lures an influential section of our public life to the policy of foreign empire and conquest, partly in imitation of England, partly in emulation of her supposed gains in foreign adventure, and partly in the way of gratitude for her diplomatic support in our war with Spain.

Professor Smith does not believe that England interposed to prevent the other European Powers from taking action adverse to us in the war with Spain. The fact has been denied by the other Powers, and no proof has been given. But if any gratitude is due from us, it is due, he contends, to the Liberal party, the constant friend of the United States, the foe to Imperialism at home, and the ally of the Anti-Imperialists in America. If America wishes to exercise a truly Imperial influence in the affairs of the world, let her adhere to her original position as the friend of the oppressed of all nations. If she had done so, he thinks that the war against the Boers would never have occurred. "It is doubtful," he says, "whether Mr. Chamberlain would have ventured on the South African war had he not been assured at least of benevolent neutrality at Washington." This is surprising when we remember that the declaration of war came from the Boers themselves. It implies that Mr. Chamberlain expected and de-

sired war, and that he conducted the negotiations in such a way as to force the Boers to strike the first blow. This may be true so far as Mr. Chamberlain was concerned, but was it true of Lord Salisbury, without whose concurrence there could have been no war?

Senator Beveridge of Indiana has given the nation a real surprise. After acquiring the reputation of an orator given over to "hifalutin," he made a speech at Columbus, Neb., on Friday on Trusts, which is the most sensible deliverance on the subject that has come from any speaker on either side. Mr. Beveridge did not make Mr. Hanna's mistake of asserting that there are no Trusts, nor Mr. Bryan's of "pitching into" all Trusts indiscriminately. He defined a Trust comprehensively as "a great combination of capital designed to simplify and unify business, or a great combination of labor designed to simplify and unify industry," whereas the average politician of either party entirely ignores the patent fact that every organization of laborers is a Trust. He proceeded to say that there are good Trusts and bad Trusts. As an excellent illustration of the former, he cited the department store, because it sells at a lower price better goods in more convenient form than could be previously obtained; and as another, the "Big Four" railroad system in Indiana and Ohio, which enables the passenger to travel in faster time on better cars at cheaper fares, and the farmer to ship grain at lower rates, than in the days when the lines which are now combined into a strong union were separate and weak. Mr. Beveridge held that the real question as to any Trust is its effect on the consumer, declaring that "the consumer is the sovereign factor in civilization."

Holding that there are bad Trusts, Mr. Beveridge maintains that there is necessity for restrictive action by the Government. Although he believes in the organization of labor, he says that a labor Trust sometimes does wrong, and then it ought to be resisted. In like manner he admits that a Trust of capitalists sometimes raises prices dishonestly, and "when it does that, it ought to be restrained or put out of existence," but he would not destroy all combinations of capital because one is dishonest. The Indiana Senator thinks that there is only one possible way of regulating Trusts—by the action of the national Government. He says that the Constitution does not now permit this, and consequently he endorses the proposition of the Republicans in Congress at the last session to amend it so that the national Government may control Trusts. There are two difficulties, however, about applying this remedy. One is, that everybody sees that it is hopeless to think of

getting two-thirds of each branch of Congress and three-fourths of the States to approve any such proposition; the other, that the particular proposition brought forward in the House last summer was condemned by so able a Republican lawyer as Representative McCall of Massachusetts as one that, "if finally adopted, would have the effect of ultimately overturning free institutions in this country." Mr. Beveridge is quite right when he says that the Democrats opposed this amendment because it was a Republican measure. If they had been in the majority, they would doubtless have brought forward the same proposition—and then all of the Republicans would have voted with Mr. McCall against it.

Archbishop Ireland's London interview, reporting the Pope's entire satisfaction with President McKinley's treatment of the Catholic Church in Cuba and the Philippines, several of our morning contemporaries of the Republican press found themselves unable to print. The less astute and cautious supporters of McKinley in the ranks of evening journalism fairly smacked their lips over the interview. McKinley praised by the Pope! Why, he will get the Catholic vote, after all! But the sober second thought perceived the political inexpediency of picturing McKinley arm in arm with Leo. Have not the embattled Methodists already said unfraternal things of their good brother in the White House on account of this very complaisance of his in dealing with the Scarlet Woman in the Philippines? And shall they now be told that, while they are immensely dissatisfied, the Pope is entirely satisfied? No, no; we are sure the demands upon the space of really wise Republican newspapers will be too great to allow them to make room for this dangerous item of news. They will remember what Bagehot says of that fine and deep instinct of English-speaking peoples which leads them to rise and destroy anything labelled Papistical. Besides, if the Pope is so pleased, how can Lodge keep his promise to take away from the Catholic Church in the Philippines all the land of which, he says, it had "robbed" the people?

Kansas this year again takes the lead as a wheat-producing State, with a yield estimated at 78,000,000 bushels. The Kansans are said to have gone "wheat crazy." The yield in the State has been very uneven from year to year. In 1887 Kansas produced only 7,000,000 bushels, and in 1889 30,000,000 bushels; it produced 70,000,000 bushels in 1892, and 23,000,000 bushels in the year following. This year's crop is a record-breaker, and the railroads are having great difficulty in moving it. Thousands of bushels of wheat are now piled up in the open air waiting for some means of transporta-

tion. It is estimated that 130,125 standard cars would be required to hold this year's crop of wheat in Kansas, and that these cars would make more than 5,000 trains of twenty-five cars each, and would extend in a solid block nearly from Kansas City to Buffalo, a distance of about a thousand miles. The railroads are confronted with the task of moving crops eastward each year, and the car-famine is a regular feature of the season. This year one of the big grain roads is expending a million dollars for new equipment in cars and locomotives. The annual moving of these great crops is perhaps the greatest achievement of American railroading. The task becomes each year more difficult and apparently impossible, yet it is each year performed.

New testimony as to the character of the police of New York was given on Thursday in the annual Convention of the Episcopal Church, where it was made known that the efforts of the Rev. Dr. Paddock, rector of the Pro-Cathedral, to prevent the seduction and ruin of young girls in or near his parish were met by insults and threats from the highest police authorities of the district. This is, perhaps, the most direct and flagrant accusation brought against the force in recent years. It amounts to a charge much worse than the licensing of houses of ill-fame. Nevertheless, this fresh revelation is no worse than the disclosures made through Dr. Parkhurst's society a few years ago. It illustrates the truth of the maxim that a persistent force always overcomes an intermittent one. The constant forces here are the demand for fresh victims of licentiousness and the demand for money by the Tammany politicians. Against these ever active forces we have only the volunteer service of a few workers, clergymen, philanthropists, and reformers. Occasionally the latter find some opportunity out of the common, by which they can make themselves heard. Occasionally they find some member of the church militant like Dr. Parkhurst who will go into the dens of iniquity and fight the devil, not with fire, but with holy water. In every such case the disciples of the Lord prevail over those of Satan for a time. Then comes a little weariness and reaction. The persistent forces begin to prevail over the intermittent ones, and the battle has to be begun *de novo*.

Minneapolis has a new primary-election law, under which voters nominate candidates by direct vote. It was framed to do away with party conventions, and to take the power of nominating candidates out of the hands of professional politicians, and place it in the hands of the voters. The results of the first election are interesting and instructive, if not altogether promising. The nomina-

tion of candidates takes place when voters are registered, and the most remarkable feature of the first election was the surprisingly large vote polled. More ballots were cast at the primary election this year than were cast at the regular election two years ago. Primary elections in the past have seldom brought out half the regular vote, and in some cases not more than one-tenth. The voters of Minneapolis thus gave the lie to the predictions of indifference at primary elections, under the new law, which had been freely made by professional politicians and ward heelers. In several instances "combine" Aldermen who were running for renomination were defeated.

The result of the election which caused most comment, however, was the nomination of the notorious "Doc" Ames by the Republicans for Mayor. Ames ran as Democratic candidate for Governor in 1886, and has been elected Mayor of Minneapolis three times on Democratic and Independent tickets. He only recently declared himself a Republican, and Republicans generally regarded him as a weak and objectionable candidate. The only Democratic candidate suggested, Gray, was sure of nomination, and his manager is reported to have begun, a week before the election, urging the Democrats to vote for Ames, on the ground that he would be an easier man for Gray to defeat than Schlener, the other Republican candidate for nomination. It would appear that thousands of Democrats voted for Ames, to "put the Republicans in a hole." The success of the trick seems to be good evidence that there is a defect in the Minneapolis Election Law, which might easily be remedied by inserting some provision like that in the New York statute, which restricts the right to vote in a primary to those who have declared themselves members of one party or another at a preceding registration.

The theory of extension of trade through extension of empire is not working out to the entire satisfaction of Germans in the Chinese imbroglio. Trade with China is said to have diminished greatly of late, and German manufacturing interests have suffered severely in consequence. Two thousand hands out of work, and 1,000 looms standing idle in the textile industry of Aachen, is one item. One factory stopped altogether, and many operators discharged in the needle factories, is another. Those engaged in Chinese trade generally are complaining, while reports from China state that German trade is handicapped there by advancing prices. The German Imperial Navy Department estimates the amount of German capital invested in China at 300,000,000 marks. Germany's exports to China during 1899 were approximately 29,000,000 marks; her im-

ports, 50,000,000. So that the trade argument is bound to have some weight. Empire and trade make an unruly team at best. They drive better singly.

A highly significant remark fell from the lips of the Emperor Francis Joseph, in his address to the Polish Deputation in Galicia, a fortnight ago. He said to them that the dissolution of the Reichsrath and the coming elections would be the last form of Constitutional resort employed by his Government. This declaration, if lived up to, means that the old Emperor is determined to put an end to the turning of the Austrian Parliament into a bear-garden. For more than three years now this national disgrace has been endured. The most extreme forms of obstruction, and incredible disorder systematically promoted, have not only brought the Reichsrath into disrepute, but have upset successive Ministries—five of them—paralyzed legislation, and shaken the very foundations of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Now, says the Emperor, this thing must stop. Exactly what is implied in his threat remains somewhat in doubt. Some say he intends to suspend the Constitution entirely, and govern as arbitrary monarch. But it is pointed out that an essential part of the compact with Hungary is that a Constitutional Government shall exist in Austria. Hence the rumor that Francis Joseph means to proclaim a new Constitution, under which a riotous Reichsrath may be called sharply to order.

The recent Congress of French priests at Bourges was rendered notable by a striking discussion of the attitude of the Roman Catholic Church towards modern society. The central figure was the Abbé Birot, who spoke with uncommon vigor and candor on the failure of the Church to play its proper part in the world at the end of the nineteenth century. "Though we love our country," he said, "we are out of touch with our times." With uncommon frankness he confessed that "our temper has become soured, through the changes of fortune, and we have shown it too much." He recalled the fact that the Church made the older society, and thus held the first place in it, whereas "modern society is made without us, and almost in spite of us." In short, he admitted that the Catholics have "practised a policy of abstention, when not one of obstruction," and that, while continuing to think themselves indispensable, they have taught the world to dispense with them. These were bold words for a priest to speak before his fellows, and they were salutary words to be heard in France, where the cheap Voltairism of the ruling bourgeois class has made the priestly function an invidious one. All the more reason, said the speaker, for frank and cheerful acceptance of the new order.

THE JUGGLER.

From first to last, Mr. McKinley's letter of "acceptance" was compulsory acceptance of Mr. Bryan's challenge to meet the indictment of Imperialism. The shifty President turned the quotations from Lincoln hurled at him from Indianapolis by bidding his opponent practise as well as preach Lincoln's doctrines; but showed how hard he had been hit by covering his retreat from the field with a proverbial phrase borrowed from his great predecessor in the Presidency:

"The Nation," he said, in his tricky and here clumsy rhetoric, "faces the new century gratefully and hopefully, with increasing love of country, with firm faith in its free institutions, and with high resolve that they 'shall not perish from the earth.'"

Now, if there was one thing of which Lincoln was not capable, it was juggling with words to gain advantage in debate. To bolster up an act of soulless conquest and oppression in a distant land, he could never have penned the justificatory sentence employed by McKinley in the same letter, asserting the Republican party's fidelity to that freedom for which it entered upon the civil war, and which it made a "lawful legacy of all, *without the consent of master or slave*"! Imagine the pen which traced the second inaugural, with its reverent acceptance of further divine chastisement—if need be—for Northern complicity in the guilt of slaveholding, signing the Emancipator's name to such monstrous cant as the following (still drawn from the same letter):

"Empire has been expelled from Porto Rico and the Philippines by American freemen. The flag of the Republic now floats over these islands as an emblem of rightful sovereignty. Will the Republic stay and dispense to their inhabitants the blessings of liberty, education, and free institutions, or steal away, leaving them to anarchy or imperialism?"

To match such an abuse of language, one has to go back to the times preceding Lincoln's election, when the defenders of slavery, North and South, made moral topsy-turvy of the dictionary. "With slaveholders," said Peleg Sprague in 1835—and in Faneuil Hall, too—"our fathers made the Declaration of Independence, coming from the pen of that other slaveholder, Thomas Jefferson, a name dear to every friend of human rights." In 1852 Charles J. Ingersoll of Philadelphia stood ready to "vindicate Slavery as part of that American liberty which the treaty of independence recognizes, and no foreign nation must meddle with." At the same epoch, Kosuth, to justify his refusal to take notice of American slavery while in this country, had resort to the current perversion of speech: "I am," he said at Castle Garden, on landing in New York, "the man of the great principle of the sovereignty of every people to dispose of its own domestic concerns; and I most solemnly deny to every foreigner, as to every foreign Power, the right to oppose

the sovereign faculty." He hailed America as "the soil of freedom" and "asylum of the oppressed." He called the war with Mexico for slaveholding expansion "the glorious struggle." Another visitor from abroad, Father Mathew, taken to task by Judge Lumpkin of Georgia for anti-slavery expressions in Ireland, wiped his glasses and saw only "this emphatically free country"—astigmatism like Webster's two years earlier, in 1847, with an eye to Charleston, which he styled "the home of the oppressed," though it had in 1844 expelled Senator Hoar's father, the official agent sent down by Massachusetts to protect the rights of her colored citizen seamen in that port. In 1850, after Webster's 7th of March speech in support of the Fugitive Slave Bill—his last desperate bid for the Presidency—seven hundred Boston addressers flattered him that "he had touched the conscience of a nation." Not so ex-Senator John A. Dix, who wrote three months later and before the bill had become law—in words which have an ominous application to our present politics:

"Commercial interests rule the day. The prices of stocks and of merchandise are considered, by a large portion of the business men, as of more importance than the preservation of great principles."

It is not too much to say that the civil war was the price of the euphemisms with which the fathers of the Republic cloaked the pro-slavery provisions of the Constitution. The entire nation was committed to the use, with reference to its great iniquity, of a hypocritical terminology which salved the conscience and checked for two generations the humane impulse to put an end to slavery. We have now come round to similar conditions. Webster's "disagreeable duty" of joining in slave-catching is matched by McKinley's "duty" to exercise our "rightful influence in any territory over which our flag floats." Cruelty and bloodshed lurk in such immoral expressions, and woe be to the people which habituates itself to them. They are met with at every turn in McKinley's letter. Not with impunity can a people read without a rising of the gorge such a statement as this by its chief magistrate and commander-in-chief:

"It will be seen that the power of the Government has been used for the liberty, the peace, and the prosperity of the Philippine peoples, and that force has been employed only against force which stood in the way of the realization of these ends."

But it is *our* liberty (the liberty of the boss, the spollsmen, and the pro-consul), *our* peace (we make a wilderness and call it so), *our* prosperity (the trader's dream), for which we have been slaughtering without subduing the Filipinos. Who calculated how much of the twenty millions of the purchase money we should get back from the commerce and the natural riches of the archipelago? Who, before it was acquired, sent out geologists to explore its mineral wealth

as a bribe to the national conscience? Behold, "my countrymen, what has been and is being done to bring the benefits of liberty and good government to these wards of the Nation"!

Any mind is in danger, again, that is not revolted by the attempt to disguise the Imperialism with which we have succeeded Spain's—by the same means, and with no greater success—under the name of "sovereignty." So Stephen A. Douglas sought to conceal the extension of the slaveholders' empire behind "squatter sovereignty," the right of the people in the Territories to vote slavery up or down. Fetches like this reveal unmistakably the Presidential progress downwards. Mr. McKinley passes, without blushing, from the affirmation that the Republican party "will not be guided in its conduct by one set of principles at home, and another set in the new territory belonging to the United States," to speak of "the generous treatment of the Porto Ricans" in accord "with the most liberal thought of our own country," and in encouragement of "the best aspirations of the people of the island." In the same breath, suppressing the fact of his own "most liberal thought" having been to bestow commercial equality upon the Porto Ricans, as a matter of course and "plain duty," he records the 85 per cent. reduction forced upon him by Congress as exemplifying the generous treatment; as if that could be generous which was not even just.

The rhetorical disease we are studying in the President shows its symptoms elsewhere than in the vain struggle to break the force of Mr. Bryan's impeachment. All things considered, the worst exhibit in his whole letter is probably this account of his treachery to the cause of civil-service reform:

"Important amendments were promulgated by Executive order under date of May 29, 1899, having for their principal purpose the exception from competitive examination of certain places involving fiduciary responsibilities or duties of a strictly confidential, scientific, or executive character, which it was thought might better be filled either by non-competitive examination or by other tests of fitness in the discretion of the appointing officer. It is gratifying that the experience of more than a year has vindicated these changes in the marked improvement of the public service."

It is speaking mildly to say that there is not a word of truth in this representation of an act stealthily performed without consultation with the Civil-Service Commissioners; or if there be a grain of truth, it only aggravates the general falsehood. It was the clearest case of "desertion" in place of "duty"; and desertion from the only bold and manly stand ever taken by Mr. McKinley in his political career. He presumes, no doubt, upon his countrymen's short memory; but more, and with better reason, upon their gullibility by dexterous display of linguistic duplicity, in which he is past master.

REPUBLICANS AND THE STRIKE.

The Republican managers are nervous about the great coal strike. Some of them admit it publicly; all of them confess it privately. Their Congressional Committee fears that it may cost them the control of the next House. Some timid souls among Republican politicians, remembering the Homestead strike of 1892, dread that a huge labor disturbance may a second time deprive them of the Presidency. In so far as this alarm is based upon the danger, the wickedness, of stirring up class hatred, we share it. We have no words strong enough to use in denunciation of the man who would array one social rank against another. Whether it be an agitator inflaming the poor against the rich, or a wealthy schemer urging capitalists to combine in order to exploit and oppress labor, we see in him only an enemy of society. Nor has our position respecting the reckless and tyrannical methods too often employed by labor unions ever been open to question. In both these matters and up to this point, our sympathies and our fears go with the Republicans.

Where we part company with them is in the political and economic doctrines with which they confront the strike. We see, if they do not, into what an awkward and helpless position, in the face of 100,000 men on strike, their campaign cries and political shibboleths have brought them. They have been putting the argument from prosperity in the grossest and most material form. This, they have shouted from every stump, is the campaign of the "full dinner-pail." Have you not enough to eat? Are you not busy, contented, warmed, and fed? Then how can you think of being ungrateful to the Republican party which has given you all these blessings? This has been the argument, full worthy, in its crass materialism, to be used by that class of men of whom the Scripture says that their god is the belly. It was an ignoble appeal from the beginning, and the gigantic coal strike has now come to shatter it.

Do the Republicans expect never to enter another Presidential campaign? One might think so from the rash way in which they are assuring in advance, by their arguments, the defeat of any future Republican Administration which may fall on evil times. Such an Administration might be clean, honest, devoted to the good and honor of the country; yet if crop failures or bad industrial conditions should bring depression of business, the cry would be, "Away with such a party!" and the Republicans themselves, if their logic this year is sound, could not say their opponents nay. Political short-sightedness could no further go. Hanna, for his part, appears ready to say, "After me, the deluge," and to risk everything on this blunt, coarse argument from the full stomach. Gov. Roosevelt, however, who

may be supposed to take a deeper personal interest in future campaigns, has seen the danger of staking everything on "the chicken in the pot," and has occasionally put this matter of prosperity as if his hearers were men and not wallowers in Epicurus' sty. He has rightly exalted thrift and industry and honesty and enterprise as the manly qualities which must always be more important than mere favoring material conditions.

The true line of reasoning for the Republican party to have taken up in this campaign is very simple. The gold standard is an honest and equable standard. It is good for the rich man; it is the security and hope of the wage-earner. That it works well in good times when Providence sends big crops which sell for unusually high prices in the world's market, we now see. Bryan's prophecies of disaster under the gold standard have proved ridiculous. Republicans may dwell on this to excellent advantage. But what they should also maintain is that the gold standard will also show itself the best in the times of adversity which will surely come. It will make values fall with less of a crash, when fall they must, and recover afterwards the more speedily. "You can see," Republican orators should have been saying to workingmen, "that the gold standard has been a source of strength in prosperity. We believe it will be a help in bad times as well." Instead of that, the Republican policy has been to hazard everything on the "full dinner-pail" of to-day, thus directly inviting the empty dinner-pail of to-morrow to sweep away party, gold standard, and all.

That there is also a grave social peril in the doctrine that the workingman owes all the good things of life to the Government, we need not stop to argue. The thing is bad for laboring-men, tending to make them flabby, dependent, unenterprising, querulous, or revolutionary; it is bad for the party that preaches it, since it leads to all kinds of promises impossible to fulfil, and surely entails political disaster in the long run; it is bad for our whole social and governmental fabric, pointing, as it does, to the destruction of individual initiative and responsibility, and straight towards a vicious paternalism, if not to State Socialism outright. The crying need of the time is for manlier appeals to the voters. Republicans are now saying that the striking coal-miners are showing themselves very selfish and greedy. Who taught them to be? What is the Republican doctrine of protection but embodied selfishness? Protection points to the great factories built up under laws favoring the few at the expense of the many, and then innocently laments the fact that the men who work in them are selfish and want more than their share! Republican stump-speakers

make swinish appeals to workingmen, and are astonished and pained if they act like swine. The whole thing goes deeper than a single campaign or the fear lest one election be lost. If the Republicans are wise, they will lay to heart the great and lasting lesson of this strike. It is that selfishness comes home to roost; that an attempt to play upon the low instincts and physical needs of man is a political blunder and a social crime; and that a party's strength, like a country's, lies not in commanding success, but in deserving it; not in the worship of the God of Things as They Are, but of the God of Things as They Ought to Be.

BRITISH PROSPERITY AND PROSPECTS.

In the September number of the London *Economic Journal* Sir Robert Giffen sets forth in a systematic way the conditions of British trade and industry during the past ten years, the past single year, and the current six months (as far as returns permit), with his expectations of the immediate future. The results of his examination bear such resemblance to our own experience during the same time that we think some particular account of them will prove interesting to American readers.

The chief point of resemblance is the great advance in prosperity during recent years, manifested in increased railway traffic, in the ocean-carrying trade, in imports and exports, in coal production, in ship-building, in public revenue, and in the proceeds of the income tax. While this growth has been subject to variations of ebb and flow, there has been a steady augmentation in the face of severe competition, as regards foreign trade, and this augmentation has been most marked in the two years 1898 and 1899. Thus, while imports increased 25 per cent. in ten years (1888-98), they increased 9 per cent. in one year 1898-99. Exports did not increase at all in the former (ten-year) period, but they increased 16 per cent. in the last-named single year. The increase in national revenue during the period 1888 to 1899 was £18,000,000 without any increase in taxation, but it leaped up £11,500,000 more in the year ending March, 1900. Being £90,000,000 in 1888, it rose to over £108,000,000 in 1899, and to £119,800,000 in 1900. The incomes upon which a tax is levied rose from £592,000,000 in 1887-8 to £729,000,000 in 1897-8.

These figures do not betoken an early decline of Great Britain to the condition of a second-rate Power. Yet Sir Robert notes a reaction, and a temporary slackening of the pace which the nation has been making during the past decade. The half-yearly traffic returns of the railways show in some cases an increase of 1 or 2 per cent. only, while in

others the traffic is stationary, and still others show a decline. The great advance in the prices of coal and iron means increased cost in manufacturing and in transportation. Railway companies are unable, for various reasons, to advance their charges to correspond with their increased expenses, and shareholders suffer accordingly. Enterprise of all kinds languishes in the face of enhanced cost of production. Some of the recent slackness in trade may be thus accounted for.

Another cause for slackness is to be found in the feeling of political unrest. It is already known that the country is to be called upon for a large increase in military expenditure. Army reorganization is an awful burden when it has to be taken up *de novo*. The war in South Africa laid bare the defects of the British military system. While expensive in itself, it paves the way to greater expenses hereafter, but this is perhaps not the worst misfortune that could happen to the country. A greater one would be a war with a European Power, for which England would be as unready as she was to meet the burghers of Transvaal. However that may be, there is no stopping now. The responsibilities of a world empire must be met with pounds, shillings, and pence. The taxes on the British artisan must be raised to something like the burden laid upon his competitor on the Continent. This increase of expense must be reflected in the world's markets, and it remains to be seen how British trade will be affected by it.

On the whole, Sir Robert believes that the conditions of British prosperity are generally stable. They depend, he thinks, more upon the national character than anything else, upon its inventiveness, its adaptability to circumstances, its self-reliance, versatility, and courage. These qualities have carried the nation through innumerable vicissitudes, and he thinks that they are still unimpaired. Combined with the accumulated capital of the nation, they are equal to any emergency that can now be foreseen, even though some countries outstrip her in particular branches of trade in which she has heretofore held preëminence. As regards coal and iron, Sir Robert acknowledges that the United States has not merely come abreast of the United Kingdom, but has passed her in the race. Yet he is not alarmed by that fact, any more than by the fact that England imports a large part of her food. When the time comes that she has to import coal, she will employ her capital and labor in industries which require less coal in proportion to the product realized. What he says on this subject is worth quoting:

"The cheapness of transport has equalized matters throughout the world, so that now people can live, and manufactures can be carried on, where climatic and other conditions are most favorable, and not necessarily in the places where the food and raw materials are produced. As to coal in

particular, it appears important to observe that the increased efficiency of the article makes the actual possession of the raw material itself less and less necessary to a manufacturing nation. Say at one time it took £50 worth of coal to produce £100 worth of goods, which sell for £105. Clearly in such a case a difference of 10 per cent. in the cost of producing coal to the advantage of a foreign competitor would be enormous. The difference would be equal to the whole profit upon the business done. But if, owing to inventions, £50 worth of coal suffices for producing £1,000 worth of goods which at the same rate of profit sell at £1,050, then the difference of 10 per cent. in the price of coal would only affect the profit to the extent of one-tenth, and there would be greater play for the factors other than coal in the total cost of production."

When Jevons wrote on this subject a quarter of a century ago, he said that the question was not whether England could make a living without coal, or with short supply of it at her own doors, but whether she could do, without it, what she now does with it. If not, she must lose her relative place among industrial and commercial Powers. On this phase of the question Sir Robert does not touch, and perhaps it was not necessary that he should, since the coal crisis is not yet acute.

At the conclusion of his article Sir Robert turns to the money question, with which he has had much to do in the controversies of the past few years. Here he makes the astounding prediction that the annual yield of gold in the Transvaal, which was £20,000,000 before the war, "will be quickly increased to £50,000,000, some say £100,000,000. Looking then," he continues, "at the production of gold throughout the world independently of the Transvaal, we must anticipate an enormous production altogether, which cannot but enhance money prices, profits, and wages." The world's production of gold in the year 1898, according to the returns of the Mint Bureau (the latest published), was \$287,000,000, of which the Transvaal yielded \$80,000,000. To suppose that the yield of the latter alone will quickly rise to \$250,000,000 seems to us a very wild surmise.

THE CLERGY AND WAR.

Bishop Percival of Hereford, England, is one of the few clergymen of the Protestant Episcopal Church whom the prevailing military enthusiasm and blatherskite have not driven from their moorings. This horrible fact—I mean the fact that these clergymen are few—has been brought to light, during the last year or two, by the process of "Expansion." It has revealed, both in England and in America, the dumfounding truth that most of the Christian ministers in both countries have substituted Mohammedanism for Christianity, and are as ready to cry, "The Bible or the sword," as were the Mussulman missionaries of the seventeenth century, "The Koran or the sword." The prospect of being able to carry the "teachings of the Gospel" in the rear of conquering armies has proved irresistible to most of them.

We know what has happened to our Protestant clergy by their own declarations,

and by their expressions of joy over McKinley's conquests. We know what is going on among the English clergy from, among other sources, an article by Arnold Ward in the August number of the *Nineteenth Century*. He says:

"A period of great missionary activity in England appears to coincide and to be not unconnected with a period of great anti-missionary activity in the Mohammedan world. The exhortations of the Archbishop of Canterbury have stimulated enthusiasm. There has been a tendency in certain circles to appropriate the British occupation of Egypt and the Anglo-Egyptian reconquest of the Sudan as events directly designed by God to benefit missionary enterprise. An example of this occurs in a letter of Bishop Wilkinson's appealing for a bishopric for Egypt, as a stepping-stone to a bishopric for the Sudan, and to a chain of bishoprics from the Cape to Cairo, published in the *Standard* of the 11th of December last. Bishop Wilkinson claims the British army as a great proselytizing instrument. 'How can we expect God to bless the British arms in any part of the world unless we do that work for which He gives us the victory?' According to this writer, God 'has given Egypt to England, and given her for a higher purpose than the building of railways, the construction of telegraphs, canals, and systems of irrigation and barrage.' Finally, the Bishop observes that England has reached Khartum and the region beyond, and, 'God helping us, who has given it into our hands, we mean to keep it against all comers, even to the Great Victoria and Albert Lakes, and beyond that, too, from Cairo to Cape Town.'

"Here, then, we find asserted precisely what all British Governments have always officially denied, that the real object of the British occupation of Egypt, and of the British advance up the Nile, is the conversion of the natives to Christianity; and, while the whole of Lord Cromer's work in Egypt is dismissed as an affair of railways, telegraphs, and canals, it is alleged that, in order to establish a chain of bishoprics across the continent, England has, or is about to have, a trans-African empire, which somehow (in spite of any existing treaties to the contrary) is to extend from Cairo to the Cape."

We find some explanation of the fact that English bishops expect to profit by English victories in England's having a state church, the clergy of which have a not unnatural tendency to regard themselves as state functionaries. They consider themselves as the religious aiders and abettors of the Government of the day. The opposition of the bishops during the last century to the abolition of the slave trade was not an isolated illustration of the hostility of a state clergy to reform. But this does not explain the attitude of our clergy towards the Government of the country when it undertakes a work of foreign conquest. Our Methodist, Baptist, and Presbyterian clergy are just as eager to profit by the conquests of our arms as the clergymen of the English Church, and apparently care as little about the morality of any agency which enables them to set up "mission stations." In fact, I don't think I should be going too far in saying that it is the eager support of the clergy which has launched McKinley on his career of conquest.

This astounding fact, that in the two leading Protestant countries of the world the religious organizations exert no better influence on politics than in a Catholic country, is one of the most solemn facts of our time. The clergy in both England and America put both their preaching and praying at the service of the party which for the moment secures the majority at the polls. In a powerful letter, published recently in the *Evening Post*, the writer in fact

made the Church responsible for most of the atrocities committed in the Philippines.

There is little doubt that the Methodist and Baptist clergymen have been the most powerful propagandists of the McKinley wars. Last year I remember that a church festival of some kind was followed, for the purpose of rousing the martial enthusiasm of the congregation, by a regular battle-hymn. And this state of things is worse with us than with the English, for the reason that the masses there are still, for the most part, in possession of the dissenting clergy, who furnish most of the peace-advocates.

Bishop Percival mentions, in the article in question, the conduct of Rhodes in getting up the Jameson raid, and says, "Here we see a course of conduct which in private life would be sincerely reprobated by the very man who did all these things; but what happens? The verdict of fashionable society condones it, and even a leading Minister of the Crown is found to declare in the House of Commons that in all these transactions, although the man had made a gigantic mistake, he had done nothing affecting his personal honor." Bishop Percival's remedy is the education of the young in the gospel of Christ, at school. This is very good as far as it goes, but I think the work might be more effectively done by simply confining ourselves to pointing out to children the disadvantages of war as a waste of human energy, of human prudence, of human knowledge, of human science, for unknown or uncertain purposes. For instance, in our last war with Spain, large numbers of our educated young men left their studies, left their homes, their careers, for the simple purpose of killing Spaniards, of destroying their property, for what reason they did not know, except that they were invited to do so by a collection of half-educated or uneducated village lawyers and dealers, assembled in Washington, and called a "Congress." Such things ought not to occur again in our time.

E. L. G.

LAKE BAIKAL TO THE YENISEI.

KRASNOYARSK, August 27, 1900.

The gigantic mountain wall which surrounds Lake Baikal has an opening at one point only. This is well towards its southern end, and through it the clear, sparkling water rushes with great rapidity, and in volume more than half that of Niagara, to form the Angara River. Forty miles below is the city of Irkutsk; between which and the lake, steamers run with greater regularity than is usual in Siberian waters, for so great is the reservoir that the depth of water never varies more than two feet. The descent is eighty feet, but as the distance is greatly increased by the windings of the river, the current is easily overcome by the power of steam. It is painful, however, to see a galleon of the olden style working its way up stream. We passed one such on our way drawn by sixteen horses.

If we reckon the length of the Yenisei from its true source, the Mississippi must take second place among the rivers of the world. As ordinarily given, the 3,400 miles assigned to the Yenisei is that of the main river below Yeniseisk, with that of the Western branch added, which comes straight down from the Mongolian highlands. But if we take the Angara, which comes in from

the east, and follow it through its wide détour before we reach Lake Baikal, and then ascend the Selenga River to its source, still farther out on the Mongolian plateau, we shall have added six or seven hundred miles to the length of the water course, and exceeded the Missouri-Mississippi by two or three hundred miles. It is 600 miles in a direct line from Irkutsk on the Angara to Krasnoyarsk on the Yenisei. The old Siberian wagon road and now the railway traverse this along what was originally a nearly level plain of stratified rock. But now this is deeply dissected by several river valleys, which have been slowly eroded in the course of ages. These rivers come down from the border of the Mongolian plateau two or three hundred miles to the south, and, after a considerably longer course northward, enter the Angara before its junction with the Yenisei. One, however, the Kan, turns west and joins the Yenisei just below Krasnoyarsk. This comparatively level area between the foothills of the Sayan Mountains and the Angara contains twice as much fertile soil as the State of Illinois, and is destined eventually to be nearly as thickly populated. It lies between the fifty-fifth and fifty-ninth degrees of latitude, which are about the same parallels as those of Moscow and St. Petersburg. The climate, though cold in winter, is warm enough in summer to ripen most varieties of grain. Wheat, rye, oats, and barley yield large and sure returns, while potatoes, cabbages, and turnips find here their natural conditions. The pastures are green, and support large herds of cattle and horses as well as endless flocks of sheep. The season is too short for Indian corn, and fruit trees do not endure the severe winters. Neither were there any berries brought into the markets which we visited, or, at any rate, they were so few as to emphasize their scarcity. Here, however, as elsewhere throughout Siberia, cucumbers largely take the place of fruit. They are raised in profusion, and when nearly ripe are put down for a few days in a brine made from salt and oak leaves, and then are eaten both in connection with regular meals and by themselves, as one eats apples. So agreeable are they to the taste that I found myself repeatedly following the crowd which rushes from the cars at every station to buy two or three cucumbers from the peasant women who bring them for sale. With meat victuals they become absolutely essential.

The streams crossed between Irkutsk and Krasnoyarsk are the Irkut, the Oka, the Uda, and the Kan. The headwaters of all these streams are in one of the great mining districts of Siberia. For a long time gold has been obtained from placer mines along their upper portions. It is natural, therefore, that near where they emerge from the auriferous mountain belt there should be flourishing centres of population. Such we find at Tulon, Nizhni-Udinsk, Birusinskia, and Kansk, the last town having a population of nearly 10,000. Long before the railway these centres had been established by the necessities of the situation. The miners needed food, and the farmers needed a market, and the gold brought in to both the few luxuries which all craved. Now that the railway opens the region more fully to the world, a rapid growth in population may be expected.

The three great luxuries in Siberia are churches, theatres, and museums. Even

the smaller villages can usually be sighted from afar by means of the white walls and the towering dome-shaped cupolas of their churches. These are all amply supplied with bells, whose rich tones roll in majestic harmony over distant hill and vale, and break the monotony of the peasants' daily toll. Inside, these churches are highly ornamented with paintings, and they are presided over by married priests of pure minds, who take a deep and genuine interest in even the poorest of their flock. Beggars are not driven from the aisles and door-steps of the church, and mothers with crying children are not requested to stay away from the house of God. Indeed, one of the most impressive parts of their worship is the presentation of little children by their mothers for communion. This takes place regularly, and the poor and rich are mingled in one mass. Irkutsk has no less than twenty of these conspicuous houses of worship, while Krasnoyarsk, with a population of only 20,000, has ten large churches. Blagovestchensk is equally well supplied. In most cases these have been erected by wealthy citizens who have been prospered in their mining investments. This same class of men have also supplied and equipped museums for their respective towns on a scale unknown elsewhere. Kono-rovsk, Nertchinsk, Irkutsk, Krasnoyarsk, and Minusinsk are thus supplied with these important means of public education. In all these places large collections, housed and well arranged in commodious buildings, are open for the inspection of the public.

Irkutsk has also a theatre which is not equalled in size and equipment in the United States outside of two or three of the largest cities. The Russians are, probably, now the leading nation in Europe in the cultivation of music, so that one can hear in Siberia all the best operas rendered in the best style. All the Siberian cities also contain conspicuous school-buildings and many imposing structures devoted to the necessities of the army. Altogether, these give a very grand appearance to the cities when seen from a distance. But, in many other respects, they are very much behind the times. It is the boast of Irkutsk that it has no municipal debt, and even has a considerable fund in hand to meet some of the necessary expenses. As an offset, however, it is to be noted that it has no pavements, no water-works, no adequate sewers, no street-cars, and no public electric lights. Another thing which strikes the American with surprise in this land of forests is the absence of saw-mills. We have seen only one in all Siberia, and that was owned by an American. This is partly accounted for by the fact that the pines of the region belong to a species that is hard and coarse-grained, and does not make good lumber; and partly by the love of the peasants for log-houses. Indeed, all the houses are made of logs, so that not much sawed lumber is needed. What there is, is sawed by hand.

Just now throughout all Siberia the demands of the army continue to overshadow everything else. Low water in the rivers is not so great a hindrance to ordinary traffic as is the mobilization of the army for the Chinese war. All the cars and engines of the railway are demanded for the transportation of troops. For two months and more there is a virtual embargo on the transportation of merchandise, and, in consequence, prices of many of the necessities

of life are rising throughout all the interior of the country. And, even so, the railway is not sufficient for the military necessities. Seven thousand soldiers are waiting here at Krasnoyarsk for means of transportation eastward. Fortunately, we are travelling westward, and so can find room in the trains moving in that direction.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—X.

FURTHER NOTES ON THE ART COLLECTIONS.

LONDON, September, 1900.

The English have virtuously stayed away from Paris this summer, to nobody's loss but their own, as Mr. Frederic Harrison has just been reminding his countrymen—and they are doing their best, therefore, to prove the Exposition a failure. Thirty million tickets remain unsold (I do not vouch for the number; I am quoting from the English papers); the moving platform is in the hands of a receiver; half the restaurants and side-shows are bankrupt; and, altogether, the whole thing is a fiasco, and, another time, France had better not sympathize with England's enemies and insult England's Queen.

But every commercial enterprise in connection with the show might fail, every big or little speculator be ruined, and the success of the Exposition, if looked upon as something more than a huge country fair, would still be assured. And, moreover, though the English, because they do not go themselves, think that no one else goes, the rest of the world understands what an opportunity has been offered, and is making the most of it. Indeed, on my second visit to Paris, the question to me was, what would happen if the English were to change their minds and come in such hordes as the Americans and, above all, the Germans? It seems impossible that Paris, or the Exposition, could hold more people than are now crowding it. Many, it is true, are there from motives of the idlest curiosity. But the great success of the Exposition is due to the fact that those whose object is to study any special subject, find such facilities as they have never had before, and probably never will have again. In my case, certainly, I have felt this only too keenly. At first, bewildered by the size and scope of the art collections, it seemed to me that I must restrict myself to the Grand Palais, and, of course, it is here that the history of the painting, sculpture, and black and white of the century can best be followed. But, on going back to Paris, I realized that I should be giving but a weak idea of the value of the Exposition to the student of art if I did not at least point out a few of the many things worth seeing outside this inexhaustible building.

I have already referred to the Petit Palais, with its marvellous retrospective show of French art, from the very first days when there was art of any kind in France, down to the end of the last century; a show to which almost every great church and museum and private collection throughout the country has contributed. Several of the pavilions of the nations have, naturally, on a much narrower scale, their own treasures to display. In the German, there are the famous Watteaus, sent by the Emperor from Potsdam, where the ordinary public is so seldom allowed to see them; in the Spanish, the gorgeous tapestries from the royal

palace; in the English, masterpieces by Reynolds and Gainsborough, Romney and Raeburn, Constable and Turner; while when you wander to the amusing colonial labyrinth near the Trocadero, you can leave Algerian and Tunisian streets, with their little tawdry bazaars and noisy, persistent natives, for the sober pavilion of Japan, into which the Japanese imperial palace has emptied, for the time, some of its rarest carvings and lacquer-work. Among them are gods and coffers that date back to the sixth and seventh centuries, and a series that covers the ages between the first great periods of art in Japan and to-day, when the Japanese artist, thanks to "Western civilization," threatens to outdo the European in commonplace, as no one can doubt who has visited the Japanese section in the Grand Palais. Each of these different collections alone would repay the specialist for the journey across the Channel or the Atlantic.

There are other minor shows, which, though not actually within the Exposition, may be considered a part of it, and, unquestionably, are to be studied in connection with it. One is the Exposition Rodin, in the Place de l'Alma, close to the gates that open into "Vieux Paris." It is a wonderful refuge from the heat and bustle and confusion of the big palace. It gives you a chance to take breath again, to remember that, after all, art may sometimes be enjoyed in peace, without a struggle. There is a feeling of repose in the very decoration of the large, airy room, with its quiet scheme of cool green and gray and yellow, and the high windows veiled from the glare by the overshadowing branches of the trees that surround the building. Besides, by no stretch of imagination can M. Rodin be called popular; the tourists do not rush to see his work, and you have the pleasant room almost to yourself. I am not so sure that he was wise in including so much, in apparently stripping his studio bare for the benefit of the passing crowd. Many of the sketches and studies only an artist would understand. Several important statues and monuments, the "Victor Hugo," the "Porte de l'Enfer," for instance, are shown in a fragmentary, unfinished state. Limbs are missing, details are supplied by numbers in pencil. It is a privilege, without doubt, to see his work in this stage, but to have sent it thus to a public exhibition seems almost a deliberate pose or affectation on his part. Nor do I think the "Balzac" strikes you as less of a heroic failure than when it was in the new Salon. But, even as I make these criticisms, I must admit that I would not have the exhibition other than it is. No less complete series would be so intimate and eloquent a revelation of the great sculptor who is the master of perfect form, as beautiful groups like "L'Éternel Printemps" and "Amour et Psyché" prove, but who is also the dreamer, the seeker after the unattainable, for ever striving to express a thought, an emotion, a passion which never has been and never can be expressed in the materials at his command. The very strength of this emotion, this passion, M. Carrière says, has led him to discover ways by which to give it visible form in marble or in bronze. But M. Carrière, as his paintings explain, prizes the suggestive in art above all else. His opinion as an artist, however, whether you agree with it or not, is of the deepest interest, and it may be found elaborated in one of the

short prefaces which he and M. Monet, M. Jean-Paul Laurens, and M. Besnard have written for the Rodin Catalogue; a little volume, further adorned by M. Carrière's portrait of the sculptor and a number of illustrations, that can be recommended, not only to all admirers of Rodin, but to the collector of the literature of art as well.

The other outside exhibition is at the Luxembourg, where the drawings and prints of M. Alphonse Legros have been hung in one of the galleries under Government supervision, the fourth show of the kind already given there. M. Legros is a Frenchman, almost forgotten in Paris because he has lived so long in London, where, however, he has received but scant recognition. He has not the force or originality of M. Rodin; he has added little of his own to the methods of the old masters, so evidently the source of his inspiration; but he is an artist of distinction, with a fine sense of style, and the one drawback to pleasure in the collection is the endless stream of stray tourists, Cook's parties, and personally conducted classes that just now overflow from the Exposition into both the Louvre and the Luxembourg. Here again there is a catalogue, arranged by M. Léonce Bénédict, Director of the Gallery, that is well worth having as the record of the life and work of an artist of genuine note.

If I have hurried away as far as the Luxembourg from the Place des Invalides, it is by no means because the Exposition is exhausted. A great deal is still to be seen and learned—less to be enjoyed—in those two colossal Palaces of the Applied or Industrial Arts. I must confess it requires moral and physical courage to study them thoroughly. The crowd, I hardly know why, is denser here than elsewhere, and makes the shortest visit a task. But if you are interested in modern decorative art, you cannot regret the discomfort or the fatigue. The first thing that strikes you, as in the Grand Palais, is the pride and care with which the Austrians and Germans have endeavored to make their sections fine and impressive, each as a whole. "Ils voulaient nous épater!"—I heard a Frenchman say of the Germans, as he wandered through their spacious central court; and it really seems as if they did. Each section has its palatial entrance and stairway; there is an imposing colonnade in the Austrian, great bronzes in the German, and in both a general scheme of color and decoration carried consistently throughout the entire enclosure. The thing is overdone, perhaps; or, rather, there can be no doubt of it. There is again the tendency to German heaviness and Austrian affectation, felt to be a drawback in the picture galleries. But, even so, the result is an improvement upon the no arrangement at all of the British, or the tawdry white and gilt outbreak of stars and stripes and mediocre frescoes of the United States, section. Indeed, the latter, in design, is as commonplace as the absurd national pavilion on the Seine; and the American, after his first regret for the poor appearance his country makes, must take what patriotic comfort he can in the greater activity of the American exhibitors and the greater intelligence of the American officials.

As for the exhibits, in all the sections, they can scarcely be said to disappoint. Any one who has followed the recent development—if development is the right

word for it—in decorative art, must have known what to expect; though, curiously, only now, in the face of this collective display of mistaken zeal, has the French critic, M. Arsène Alexandre, suddenly discovered that there is such a thing as a definite style in the furniture and decoration of to-day—"Modern Style" is his name for it—and that "ce style est malade"; his phrase would lose in translation. Now, this fact has been evident to many people for a long while. It has been revealed in almost every recent exhibition of the Arts and Crafts in London and on the Continent, and, from month to month, suggestively recorded in the *Studio*, an art journal that strives always to be "in the movement" and to keep pace with every new phase and fashion. This "Modern Style" is not easy to define, for it is like nothing that has gone before, and, let it be hoped, like nothing to come after. Excess is its chief doctrine, and its chief characteristic is the use of violent and eccentric lines, absolutely without meaning or beauty, and with no other motive than extravagance, no other end than sensationalism. They are the lines that now confront you on any and every thing capable of decoration, from the covers of your books to the posters on the hoardings, from the plates you eat out of to the beds you sleep in; the lines from which there is no escape in the Palaces of Industrial Art. Where German chairs and tables are not mediæval or ecclesiastical, they are a mass of distracting, impossible, and uncomfortable lines and curves. Austria gives her official approval to the new convention by making it the basis of ornament in a little room furnished by the school of the Museum of Arts and Industries in Vienna; while I have brought away with me a haunting impression of another room—the design of a private exhibitor—where the mad lines and crazy convolutions on the walls were repeated again and again—embroidered on the sofa and chair cushions, woven in the carpet, carved in the tables and cabinets, until my brain fairly whirled as I tried to follow the patterns.

The same angular device, with variations, again awaits you in Belgium, in Scandinavia. In France, you pass from one collection of bewildering angles and lop-sided furniture to another, until you arrive at the very sanctuary of *L'Art Nouveau*, M. Bing's Pavillon, where to the incoherent lines and curves in the furniture is added such a riot of mural decoration that, in the model dining-room, where the walls are decorated by M. Sert, a Spanish artist whom I here met for the first time, dinner would become a sort of nightmare. In the British Section, also, eccentricity rules, though the Arts and Crafts Society, responsible for so much of it, makes no representative showing, and though some of the shopkeeping exhibitors have the good sense to adhere to dignified old English models. The most affected performances are in the bedrooms of the British Pavillon, where the Bromsgrove Guild of Applied Arts has been given free play. The American Section contains little but the most practical furniture—school and office desks, hammocks, and so on—so that there is a respite from the prevailing debauch of angular ugliness. But to me, it seems, that, even in Tiffany's Faville Glass and the Rookwood Pottery, the growing tendency is to the extravagance, the over-elaboration in ornament, that is the

evil of the day. It is the utter lack of repose in modern decoration that is most depressing and deplorable. Sensationalism must now follow poor weary mortals from their papers, their novels, their plays, to what should be the quiet of their firesides. The crimes committed in the name of decoration are enough to send you to the opposite extreme of Puritanism in art, and to set you to longing for whitewashed walls and plain rush-bottomed chairs. In the French Section there is a delightful centennial collection of furniture that, serving as contrast, emphasizes the modern restlessness. A series of rooms represent the several periods from Louis XVI. to the Second Empire, by no means the finest periods of decoration in France. But the frankly vulgar gorgeousness of the Second Empire is distinction itself compared to the foolish struggle after eccentricity and the affectation of to-day. It may be wondered why, when modern decoration is so bad, any exhibition of it should have the slightest value. But I think such a universal revelation of the evil will open the eyes of other people besides M. Arsène Alexandre, and may eventually lead to the much-needed reaction.

The one change that the summer months have brought to the Grand Palais is that the exhibits are now duly adorned with the awards they have won. The system of medal-giving, theoretically, is excellent. It was intended not to expose the artist to a foolish and mortifying competition, but to confer upon him honors somewhat equivalent to the degrees the universities give to the distinguished literary man. But, practically, the system does not work so well. The split it caused in the ranks of the French artists in 1889 is an old story, and it is impossible to go through the galleries of 1900 without wondering at the vagaries of the jury. In the American section the higher rewards are discreetly enough distributed. In painting, the *Grand Prix* goes to Mr. Whistler and Mr. Sargent; the gold medal to Mr. Abbey, Mr. Alexander, Miss Beaux, Messrs. Brush, Chase, Homer, and Thayer. In engraving, the *Grand Prix* to Mr. Whistler; the gold medals to Mr. Pennell and Mr. Cole. But, after that, there is such a suggestion of haphazard that it looks as if some truth were in the rumor that the *International Jury* did not occupy itself with the matter, once the gold medals were distributed. I have already insisted upon the absurdity of classing illustration with painting. The jury comes to the drawings after having squandered most of the medals and all its energy on the paintings; while a man like Mr. Abbey, unquestionably more distinguished as an illustrator than as a painter, because his painting has been awarded a gold medal can receive nothing for his drawing. Similar inconsistencies occur in the other sections. For example, the *Grand Prix* for etching is given to M. Vierge, though I could not find that he had sent prints of any kind save a few process blocks after his designs for 'Pablo de Segovia,' and also to Herr Menzel, who, on general principles, merits the highest honors, but whose three etchings, apparently from some publisher's collection, are of comparatively slight importance. It would have been much more to the point, anyway, had he exhibited and been medalled as illustrator. The reforms needed in the next *International Exhibition*—should there ever be another, which is doubtful—are, first, a new classification that will give illus-

tration a section apart, and then greater care in the constitution and methods of the jury of awards. There is no reason why the medals should not be to all who receive them the honor they now are only to the few.

N. N.

Correspondence.

OF TWO EVILS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Regarding the Presidential candidates, I think your paper has taken a very sensible stand in not supporting either of the nominees, but in comparing the strength and weakness of each. In this campaign, as in that of 1896, there is no candidate worthy of an American vote. It would be too much, of course, to find a man satisfactory to all factions, but the present leaders are pleasing to politicians only. McKinley is condemned by the people on account of his Philippine policy and his relations with Mark Hanna. Bryan, on the other hand, is a leader of Populists and Anarchists, who, should they get control, would doubtless ruin the country. Bryan, however, has sensible views on the question of expansion, but the free-silver fallacy hurts him.

Which of these men to vote for is a difficult matter to decide. It is a choice of evils, and it lies with the voter to choose the less dangerous leader. At present, Imperialism is the chief issue. Bryan is opposed to McKinley's policy, and, as there will doubtless be a Republican Congress to check any attempt of his to force free silver on the country, I feel that he is the safer man.

Congress is supposed to check the power of the President, and in the present crisis rule by Congress is necessary. When we have a strong President, one who will not cater to the bosses, and one with courage to follow his own convictions, then it is well to have a Congress in unison; but, in the present case, a man like Bryan can do less damage than a man like McKinley—ruled by "bosses," and without courage to say "No"—with a Congress supporting him.

Yours, ROBERT MONTGOMERY.

Boston, September 27, 1900.

HOW THE SUBSIDY WORKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Why has not some one exposed the following feature of the shipping-bill subsidy scheme?

Valuable subsidies are secured for two steamship companies of a certain transatlantic company, under the terms of which they are given American registry and sail under the American flag. Two new steamers of the same company are also built and registered here under the same subsidy arrangement. The grounds upon which the subsidy is granted are, the greater cost of building the ships in this country and of operating them under our flag. For the alleged patriotic purpose, therefore, of encouraging American shipbuilding and the employment of American instead of foreign seamen, the subsidy is sought and obtained, and an easily gulled public rejoices. But wait! The subsidy having been secured, the shipbuilding firm becomes an incorporated company; the capital is increased, and the officers of the steamship line are "taken in on the

ground floor" in the matter of stock and bond issues. Large dividends are subsequently paid upon the stock. Thus the subsidy paid by the United States Treasury to the steamship company goes mainly into the coffers of the shipbuilding company (to meet the alleged cost of building ships in excess of the cost if built abroad), and, to a considerable extent at least, *back into the pockets of the steamship company's officers, as profits made out of the alleged excessive cost of building in this country.* Very pretty game, is it not? Should we marvel, then, at the pressure brought by the steamship company's officers to bear upon Congress to open wider the doors of the United States Treasury through the new shipping bill? Need we wonder at the very intimate relations subsisting between the "boss" of the steamship company and the "boss" of the political machine which is to be used to work the little game further?

It is a matter for wonder, however, that men claiming to be free and intelligent can possibly believe that this scheme, by which money is to be transferred from the people's pockets to the pockets of the steamship company's officers, is *pro bono publico*. But they would not so believe were they not slaves to party and blinded by the god of this world, called "Business"—"with a big, big B"! Still greater is the wonder that men claiming to be honest gentlemen, and holding high their heads in the business world, should consent to get rich by such robbery of the people and call it "business"! H.

JARGON OF THE PHILIPPINES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A curious example of the change of form a word may undergo in passing from one language to another through the medium of speech alone has come to my notice here. A common slang among American soldiers for the word "credit" is "jawbone." By means of signs and the few words of Spanish and Tagalo he has picked up, the soldier asks the native keeper of the little *tienda* to sell him a bottle of beer or a package of cigarettes "on jawbone"—which means, credit him till next pay-day.

The natives have adopted the word as their ears catch it, and they pronounce it and write it "diubun," *di* being the only combination of letters in Spanish that approximates the sound of the English *j* before hard vowels.

I found on the church door some time ago a very well-written anonymous *manifesto* whose last paragraph read: "Ah! Americanos! Fuera el Gobierno Imperialista, fuera la esclavitud, fuera contribuciones, fuera la diubun, y viva la independencia del pueblo filipino."

Of another expression the natives and the soldiers have made a mutual exchange: every native can say to you, "No got," and every soldier uses "No hay."

M. F. STEELE.

LUCBAN, ISLAND OF LUZON, P. I.,
August 12, 1900.

THE VOCABULARY OF SCHOOL-CHILDREN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I add my word to the discussion concerning the vocabulary of school-children—school-girls even more than school-boys? Boys generally have some sort

of slang in which to express themselves, but girls often have no words at all.

Is not the whole trouble due to the hurry and pressure of modern life, which we allow the children to feel almost from the cradle? Certainly, any grown person with a sense of the real needs of the case can do his little toward reducing the speed and improving the quality of the child's training; and so, in spite of faulty systems of education, the teacher of taste can help the boy to appreciate a skillful choice of words and to use a fitting vocabulary. The weak spot on which I should put my finger, however, is the literature which is read to children before they go to school, or which they are encouraged to read by aunts and cousins who always give them a book at Christmas.

I have lately been examining a few children's books which I judge to be fairly typical. There is no repose in them. They are continually stimulating the child to jump chasms of thought or climb impossible steeples of fancy; or, still worse, they are written in easy conversational style—the conversation of children like the readers, trivial, impatient of any difficulty in expressing an idea. Where the thought is not hard to understand, the book is mere chatter; where it is didactic, the words are too big, or else all reduced to the level of one syllable.

The books of a generation or fifty years ago were of quite different character, and I am encouraged to mention them because last week I found them recommended as good reading for the modern four-year-old. At least they had good points which are lacking in many children's books of the present day. 'Sandford and Merton,' 'The Parents' Assistant,' and the Rollo books, distasteful as they may be to the older reader or to a child that has been "fleshed" with stronger meat, form a healthful diet for the young mind; and the real 'Robinson Crusoe'—not the emasculate editions one often sees—and the 'Arabian Nights' give plenty of stimulus without the nervous hurry of a ten-minute meal.

With those old books, there is really leisure enough to digest the long words, because the ideas are presented slowly and often repeated. Strange words are inserted among easy words, so that the meaning stands out strikingly and clearly. In general, the ideas are so simple that the child is not left in the dark as to the meaning. On the other hand, I have in mind one or two modern books in which the play of thought is so subtle, and the changes so quick, that the child must have only an impression of something exciting, not a real picture of what is taking place.

I know this is not true of the best books, but the best books usually go into the families where the children have a somewhat careful training and do not show so lamentable a lack of vocabulary. Neither should I recommend a wholesale adoption of all the old story-books. They had faults. But surely, if we surrounded our boys and girls in the nursery with a more leisurely atmosphere, if we gave them books in which the thought is sensible but simple and presented slowly, and the vocabulary not too difficult, our school-children of fifteen would stand a better chance of understanding an ordinary paragraph in a history or rhetoric, and of themselves giving an interesting account of a sail down the bay or a trip to the mountains.

ELINOR M. BUCKINGHAM.

WELLESLEY HILLS, MASS.,
September 22, 1900.

THE ORIGIN OF CHESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent communication (*Nation*, No. 1833) I enumerated (p. 134) certain more or less recent publications concerning the forms of chess in easternmost Asia. Had I been more familiar with that portion of the chess-field, I should have called the attention of your readers to the titles of other similar productions cited by Mr. Stewart Culin in his remarkable treatise 'Chess and Playing-cards,' contained in the Report of the United States National Museum for 1896 (pp. 665-942, Washington, 1898). These titles occur especially in the foot-notes of pp. 682, 865, and 867-8, and embrace several invaluable contributions, by Mr. Karl Himly (to one of whose essays I referred), in various later volumes of the *Zeitschrift der deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*; Mr. W. H. Wilkinson's 'Manual of Chinese Chess' (Shanghai, 1893); Mr. Stewart Culin's own 'Korean Games' (Philadelphia, 1895), which may or may not treat of chess; Mr. O. Von Möllendorff's 'Schachspiel der Chinesen' in the *Mittheilungen der deutschen Gesellschaft für Natur- und Völkerkunde Ostasiens* (Vol. II., ii.); an apparently anonymous article, 'Das schachähnliche Brettspiel der Chinesen' in that oldest and ablest of all chess-journals, the *Deutsche Schachzeitung* of Leipzig (March-July, 1891); and one or two other papers of minor importance. Other foot-notes in Mr. Culin's elaborately illustrated volume will interest all students of chess bibliography, notably those on pp. 862-3, which reproduce a striking communication from Mr. John G. White of Cleveland, Ohio, the owner of the largest and far the most valuable collection of books and manuscripts on chess which has ever been brought together. Nothing can exceed, in point of just discrimination, Mr. White's characterization of the virtues and defects of that ardent and laborious investigator of chess history, Antonius Van der Linde. He concludes that all later researches "have left substantially unchanged the more important features" of Van der Linde's works, which he regards as "mines of information." Mr. White is equally just in his statement: "As to the historic study of the game, there is nothing in the English language worthy of mention. Forbes's 'History' is antiquated. He did not even make good use of the material known to him." W. F.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co.'s autumn list contains a 'History of America before Columbus,' according to documents and approved authors, by P. de Roo; 'Two Centuries of Pennsylvania History,' by Isaac Sharpless, President of Haverford College; 'The Germans in Colonial Times,' a study of German immigration to America, by Lucy Forney Bittinger; 'Famous American Belles of the Nineteenth Century,' by Virginia Tatnall Peacock; 'Rambles in Colonial Byways,' by Rufus Rockwell Wilson; 'Literary Rambles at Home and Abroad,' by Dr. Theodore F. Wolfe; 'The Other Man's Country: An Appeal to Conscience,' by Herbert Welsh; 'Great Battles of the World,' by Stephen Crane; 'Van Dyck,' illustrated by fifty photogravures; 'Stories of Famous Songs,' by S. J. Adair Fitzgerald; 'Paris and the Pari-

sians,' by John F. Macdonald; 'Sands of Sahara,' by Prof. Maxwell Sommerville; a new 'Dictionary of Foreign Phrases and Classical Quotations,' edited by Hugh Percy Jones; the 'Complete Angler of Izaak Walton and Charles Cotton,' edited by John Major; and White's 'Selborne,' edited by R. Bowdler Sharpe.

Fleming H. Revell Co. will shortly bring out 'The Chinaman as We See Him,' by Ira M. Condit, D.D.; 'Chinese Mother Goose Rhymes,' translated and illustrated by Prof. Isaac Taylor Headland of Pekin University; 'Verbeck of Japan: A Citizen of No Country,' by Wm. Elliot Griffiths; 'Pandita Ramabai: The Story of her Life,' by Helen S. Dyer; 'Wrongs of Indian Womanhood,' by Mrs. Marcus B. Fuller; 'Arabia: The Cradle of Islam,' by the Rev. S. M. Zwemer; 'Forbidden Paths in the Land of Og,' travels east of the Jordan River; and 'Pioneering on the Congo,' by the Rev. W. Holman Bentley.

Among the latest announcements of Charles Scribner's Sons are 'A Literary History of America,' by Prof. Barrett Wendell; 'A General History of Europe, 300-1900,' by Profs. Oliver J. Thatcher and Ferdinand Schwill; 'English Composition for High Schools,' by Prof. Hammond Lamont; 'Songs and Song Writers,' by Henry T. Finck; 'The World of the Great Forest,' by Paul B. Du Chaillu; 'Mooswa and Others of the Boundaries,' denizens of the Canadian wilderness, by W. A. Fraser; 'Overheard in a Garden,' by Oliver Herford; 'Oriental Rugs,' by John Kimbly Mumford; 'With Both Armies in South Africa,' by Richard Harding Davis; and 'Prince Charles Edward,' by Andrew Lang, sumptuously illustrated from original sources.

Tolstol's 'Slavery in Our Times,' an inquiry into the results of modern industrialism, is soon to be published in this country by Dodd, Mead & Co.

'The Sower, and Other Poems,' by Edwin Markham, will be issued directly by McClure, Phillips & Co.

A posthumous volume by H. D. Traill, 'England, Egypt, and the Sudan,' will be shortly published by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'The Four Evangelists in Classic Art,' by Rachel A. La Fontaine.

Dana Estes & Co., Boston, announce 'Paris in its Splendor,' by E. A. Reynolds-Ball, F.R.S., with fifty full-page half-tone plates; a humorous version of 'The Animals in Aesop,' illustrated also, by J. J. Mora; and 'Traveller Tales of South Africa,' compiled by Hezekiah Butterworth.

Elder & Shepard, San Francisco, promise 'Haphazard Quotations,' by L. E. B.; 'Observations of Jay (a Dog), and Other Stories,' by Morgan Shepard; and 'The Sphinx and Other Poems,' by Prof. William Henry Hudson of Stanford University.

Of Dr. Joseph Wright's 'Dialect Dictionary,' a work indispensable to every student of the English language in its entirety, the progress through the press is such that its completion may be looked for at a date which, considering its magnitude, must satisfy the most exacting. Commenced in 1896, two volumes of it, handsome quartos, aggregating 1,660 pages, are already before the public. The third volume, containing H-L, will be printed off by the middle of November; and it is expected that vol. iv., containing M-R, will be ready in the course of next year. Vol. v. will contain S-T, and

vol. vi., U-Z, together with a supplement, a bibliography, and a comprehensive comparative grammar of all the English dialects.

We continue our bare mention of the season's reprints with the revised edition of Austin Dobson's 'William Hogarth,' a work which we noticed at length nine years ago, and which the unwearied author has enlarged and amended (London: Kegan Paul; Philadelphia: Lippincott). The bibliography has been considerably extended; so has the catalogue of prints and paintings. The index, too, has been made fuller; and there are four new illustrations. It remains, therefore, as before, the latest and the best work on the subject. We do not find in the Bibliography the three-volume 'Hogarth's Works with Life and Anecdotal Descriptions of his Pictures,' which has the London imprint of Oliphant, Anderson & Ferrier, London, and comes to us from J. B. Lippincott Co. as a new issue from old plates. It is an acknowledged compilation from Ireland & Nichols, and takes up the prints and paintings seriatim, explaining each reduced copy with an amplitude characteristic of the early period to which the text goes back. The plates vary considerably in clearness, the best answering well enough the purpose of memoranda for reference. More cannot be said in praise. The "Sigismunda" facing p. 76 of volume I. has no earthly relation to the delightful picture bearing that name in the National Gallery, of which a photograph direct from the canvas is given by Mr. Dobson at p. 134.

Ernest Rhys's "Illustrated record of the life and work" of another English artist reaches its third edition—'Frederic Lord Leighton, late President of the Royal Academy of Arts' (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan). It differs from the second edition of 1894 chiefly in giving a chapter to Lord Leighton's house in 1900, by S. Pepys Cockerell, who treats his subject architecturally, the contents having all been dispersed at public sale.

The reissue by Macmillan Co. of John Edward Courtenay Bodley's 'France' means uniting two volumes in one at a lower price, but with no significant inferiority in mechanical execution. The text is as readable as ever, and the binding is tasteful if simple.

The "Stories" in the distinguished uniform edition of Mr. Frank Stockton's writings (Scribners) are left behind with a fourth volume, and the companion volume is taken up with "Mrs. Lecks and Mrs. Aleshine" and "The Vizier of the Two-Horned Alexander."

The Dent-Lippincott presentation of 'John Halifax, Gentleman,' a story whose sale has been continuous for nearly half a century, is handsome in all respects. For a portrait of the author, we have a copy of the memorial medallion of Mrs. Craik in Tewkesbury Abbey, and there are a few authentic views of buildings and scenes. The imaginative illustrations, however, twelve in number, are all in color, and lend a certain quaintness to the single volume of 421 closely but clearly printed pages. A companion to the foregoing is Scott's 'Ivanhoe,' but the colored drawings are concerned with the action of the story alone. It contains, also, a hundred more pages.

The "Riverside Aldine Classics," five in a box, which embody selections from Holmes, Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier, and Hawthorne (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), boldly profess to carry on the traditions of Aldus Manutius

and his disciple, William Pickering. That they are "free from eccentricities" will be readily conceded, and their convenience for the pocket or the hand speaks to the eye. For the rest, at a moderate cost, they certainly worthily carry on the traditions of the Riverside Press, and the binding is exceptionally attractive and well conceived. The series is but begun.

A compact little 'Notes for the Guidance of Authors,' compiled by Mr. William Stone Booth and published by Macmillan Co., contains the pith of the gospel of the orderly preparation of manuscript for the press, very clearly put. The proof-reader's hieroglyphics, too, are shown and interpreted; and J. S. Cushing & Co. of the Norwood Press, Boston, append their rules for spelling, punctuation, and style—safe to follow by the uniformitarian, if subject to a higher law of taste and the variation of original genius.

The last volume of Briggs, Driver & Plummer's 'International Critical Commentary' to make its appearance is 'Proverbs' (Scribners), by Professor Toy of Harvard. This volume is an evidence of the continuing tendency of critics to assign the literature of the Old Testament to constantly later dates. In his 'Job and Solomon,' published in 1887, Cheyne, a fair representative of the most advanced school, argued with much positiveness that Proverbs was pre-Exilic, against the view advocated by Kuenen, Wellhausen, and a few others that it was composed in the fourth century B. C. This latter was the most extreme date proposed for the book at that time. To-day, thirteen years later, rather conservative scholars accept the date then deemed untenably extreme by Cheyne, while Professor Toy assigns the final composition of the book to the second century B. C., although placing the two large collections of proverbs which constitute the bulk of the work at the close of the fourth century B. C.

The sixth volume of Schrader's "Keilinschriftliche Bibliothek," the first half, which appeared this year, contains 'Assyrian and Babylonian Myths and Epics,' edited by Dr. P. Jensen of Marburg. Almost one-half of the 300-odd pages of this volume are devoted to the Gilgamesh Epic, which Dr. Jensen also designates as the Nimrod Epic. As appendices to this appear fragments of a second and third version of the Flood Story, which constitutes part of that epic, a conjuration formula, and a hymn to Gilgamesh, with some other fragments. In his preface Professor Jensen likens the work of Assyriology to "a field with hop poles, of which very many are approximately or altogether straight and upright, but many stand crooked, bending in all directions." He calls attention to the lack of finality and of completeness in the best text available, namely, that of Dr. Haupt, and of the inability of the best scholars as yet to translate with certainty everything, even in a poem so often worked over as the Gilgamesh Epic. His own translations are, intentionally, as he says, most literal, to the extent, sometimes, it must be said, of utter unintelligibility to the ordinary reader. His object seems to be to reproduce in his German as exactly as possible the condition of the text, and leave the student unprejudiced to struggle with its interpretation. The second half of this volume, now in preparation, is to contain religious texts of all sorts—hymns,

magical, ritual, and omen texts, proverbs, and the like. This library of transliterations and translations of Assyrian and Babylonian texts is of the greatest value to the student.

With no flourish of trumpets, or even simple announcement on the covers, the first fascicule (of some thirty) of 'The Italian Catalogue,' as we may call it, makes its appearance ('Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899.' Milan: Ulrico Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Practically half of the expiring century's output in Italian books will be recorded; and not in the peninsula alone. Take, in the portion before us (A—Arenas-Natoli), the rubric *Alighieri, Dante*; we meet with Boston, London, Paris, Berlin, Leipzig, Zweibrücken, Freiburg, Stockholm, etc., imprints. There are eight columns of entries under this title, and their bibliographical value is obvious. The particulars are ample: place, date, publisher, size, pages, price. The "six-point body" in which the Catalogue is set corresponds to our nonpareil; and, while it would be trying to read, it is made easy of author-reference by a full-face catch-title. The sub-alphabetizing, as is unavoidable in Continental languages, involves a complete search without classification. This enterprise, we need not say, is worthy of wide support. In following the lead of the 'American Catalogue' it shows again that peace hath her victories.

We announced last week a forthcoming "Dante Calendar." A "Goethe-Kalender" for 1901 now comes to us from Lemcke & Buechner—cardboard sheets fastened with a pink ribbon, ornamented with floral and scenic water-color designs, having no relation to the poet or to his accompanying verse. We like better, reaching us from the same house, the familiar colored "Münchener Kalender," in its seventeenth issue, with its display of princely and noble arms, which amount in the past seven years, as the publishers say, to the elements of a great heraldic work; and Munich "Deutscher Hauskalender," noticeable for its decorative colored borders and convenient tablets.

The revival of the *Magazine of American History*, with William L. Stone and William Abbott as editors, is assured. It will have its old form of a square octavo, and be issued monthly from January 1, 1901, at four dollars a year, payable on the appearance of the first number. Mr. Stone's address is No. 151 Park Avenue, Mount Vernon, N. Y.

The Royal Library of Munich, Bavaria, is now celebrating the fifth centennial anniversary of Gutenberg's birth by an exceedingly interesting exhibition of its incunabula, most of which are very rare and quite a number absolutely unique. First is a collection of "block-books." Especially noteworthy are three editions of the 'Biblia Pauperum,' a Netherland edition of the Latin text not earlier than 1460, and two editions in German issued at Nördlingen in 1470 and at Nuremberg in 1471; the only known copies of a Dance of Death dating from the sixth decade of the fifteenth century, and of a 'Symbolum Apostolicum' (about 1475); an 'Ars Moriendi' declared by Dutuit to be the oldest xylographic edition of this work; and a guide for pilgrims to Rome prepared for the jubilee of 1475, and entitled 'Mirabilia Urbis Romæ.' This largest of all the block-books bears the escutcheon of Pope Sixtus IV., and contains

a history of Rome till the time of Constantine, with a description of the churches, their sacred relics, and the means of obtaining absolution. We can mention further only a perfectly preserved copy of the first printed (42-line) Bible (1454-'56); the sole existing copy of 'Eyn manung der Cristenheit widder die durcken,' a folk-book of German rhymes issued in the form of a calendar for 1455, two years after the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks—a circumstance that renders the "admonition" peculiarly appropriate.

The death at Montreal on September 15 of Thomas Davidson will be regretted by a large number of friends and disciples. Mr. Davidson led a life devoted to high philosophical ends, and, while the philosophy which he propagated was not of the sort that forms an established foundation for further structure, it was, nevertheless, both a delightful intellectual exercise and an ethical consolation to many inquiring minds. His summer encampment in the Adirondacks was the Mecca of a large body of adherents. He continued his lectures there this summer in spite of rapidly advancing weakness, and he was finally obliged to seek medical aid in a nearer city than New York. His most important work was the translation of the 'Anthropology' of the Italian scholar, Father Rosmini, and his writings on the philosophy of education of the same author.

—Mr. J. N. Larned's 'History of England, for the Use of Schools and Academies' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), covers most familiar territory and comes into comparison with several well-known text-books, both English and American. We can partly describe its scope by saying that it stands midway between S. R. Gardiner's 'Outline of English History' and his 'Student's History of England.' However, as the same statement might be made about other text-books of English history, we must add that Mr. Larned, besides writing for an intermediate class of pupils, adopts an explanatory rather than a narrative style. A contrast with existing books by American authors might seem invidious, and so we shall try to bring out the strongest aspect of Mr. Larned's history by placing it at the other extreme from a treatise which is widely used in England, India, and the British colonies. We refer to the late Cyril Ransome's 'Short History of England.' The great success of this manual is traceable to the skill with which it compresses a large number of facts into a relatively small space, and to its tact in steering between controversial opinions. But while it contains many more facts than Mr. Larned's book, it is less instructive; certainly it is less adapted to the needs of beginners. Mr. Larned follows the progress of English national development in such a way as to reduce the scale of all but the most important tendencies. He pursues a "path to a clear-purposed goal" much more resolutely than Ransome does, for where he cannot stop to interpret the bearing of a certain fact he rejects it altogether. The learning of history is too often made a *tour de force* of memory. It is not enough that an elementary narrative should be clear and correct or even interesting. It should also appeal to the pupil's reason and impress it with a sense of coherence. Here Mr. Larned has succeeded. He avoids the system of memory "cram," and addresses the intelligence. We may give a list of several other valuable features

which this text-book possesses. Much judgment has been shown in the choice of illustrations, and (an important and often-neglected point) the authority for each is mentioned. The text keeps in close touch either with original authorities or with the conclusions of recent specialists like Maitland, Round, and Vinogradoff. Finally, very full bibliographical notes have been furnished by Mr. H. P. Lewis, with good research questions and topical analyses. We must give Mr. Larned's 'History of England' warm praise, and not the least because it explains the true historical connection between England and the United States.

—The chief interest in 'A History of the Oxford Mission to Calcutta,' by George Longridge (London: John Murray), lies in its graphic pictures of the Babu as the English system of education introduced by Macaulay in 1835 has made him, a man with a keenly alert and inquiring mind, but absolutely without moral or religious convictions. English and natives alike deplore this result of the attempt to educate Eastern youth on Western methods. A profound sense of responsibility for present conditions prompted the establishment twenty years ago of the Oxford Mission for work among the six thousand students of the University of Calcutta, mostly young men exposed to all the dangers of city life, and who are "under no system of supervision or discipline of any sort or kind." This has mainly consisted in forming close personal relations with them. The Mission House is open to them at all times. "Most afternoons there is a pretty constant stream of them coming in to use the reading-room, to borrow books, to talk or to 'read Bible,' as they express it; and our aim is to draft them off to our rooms by ones or twos—seldom more at a time—and then learn from them their thoughts, their difficulties, their doubts; to teach them the great truths of the faith, and to press home to their consciences those moral and spiritual facts which they are generally willing enough to recognize intellectually." Later a students' boarding-house was opened and was an immediate and permanent success, although it was made perfectly clear that while no religious conditions were imposed on the residents, they would be brought directly under Christian influences. The Mission also maintains an industrial school for the children of Christian natives, with 160 pupils. The studies of its members are directed mainly to the investigation of the great Indian religious systems, in order to place them in their right relation to the Christian faith. With rare exception these members are University men.

—The happy idea of Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain in condensing into a duodecimo a cyclopædia treating of Japan was quickly borrowed for China (with permission) by Mr. J. Dyer Ball of her Britannic Majesty's civil service at Hong Kong. Long a resident, and we believe a native, of China, Mr. Ball handles his manifold themes with firmness and ease. Without wit or sparkle, his handbook is rich in information. Successive editions, of which the third is now before us (Scribners), show improvement as well as enlargement. The alphabetical arrangement of subjects, backed by a good index, makes consultation easy, and the topics selected are those upon which we need

most light. Mr. Ball, though a prophet in insight, is not a foreteller of the future, but whatever Chinese literature and history as well as contemporary life have to show is set clearly and tersely before us. After many of the articles, condensed in treatment as they necessarily must be, occurs, under the heading of "Books Recommended," a list of the literature of the subjects as set forth in European languages. Naturally at this time one turns to the article on Secret Societies, to find there nothing said about the "Boxers," which, however, is perhaps no discredit to the editor, since letters received from Pekin within a week of the outbreak made no reference to the uprising. Furthermore, Mr. Ball, as a scholar, would not, except under protest, use this most misleading term, for there are no native boxers in Chinese. The only Chinese acquainted with the art of boxing are of the feminine and maternal sort. Even these use their tongues far oftener than their palm or fist. Whether treating of pagodas or poetry, leprosy or literature, tombs or topsy-turvydom, land tenure or tigers, we have abundance of accurate and luminous information in this volume of nearly 700 pages, which has also a good index.

RECENT WORKS ON SHAKSPEARE.

Shakspere not Shakspeare. By William H. Edwards. With Portraits and Facsimiles. "Let every tub stand on its own bottom."—Apt Proverb. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. 1900.

A New Study of the Sonnets of Shakspeare. By Parke Godwin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

Shakspeare: The Man. An Attempt to Find Traces of the Dramatist's Character in his Dramas. By Goldwin Smith. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1900.

In Jean Paul's 'Quintus Fixlein' he sketches a delightful village pedant who spent his life in such literary labors as were involved, for instance, in counting the number of times that the letter A appeared in the Holy Scriptures; and who recorded with pride that in this case the total figure was 323,015. He justly observed, furthermore, on completing his task, that important results were to be drawn from this, and advised his readers to draw them. Had the German humorist lived a century or so later, he would doubtless have devised for his hero a class of themes yet more inexhaustible, and affording the reader still more effort in discovering any valuable results from them. He would unquestionably have shut his hero up in some village garret, and have had him take up the problem whether Shakspeare wrote Shakspeare; and if so, when, why, and wherefore. In pursuing this theme as adequate food for the decline of life, he would have had, among many examples, the authors of the three books now before us. Mr. Goldwin Smith is now seventy-seven years old, Mr. Edwards seventy-eight, and Mr. Godwin eighty-four, and each has earned, by good literary service in the past, the right to bestow his time as he will.

The types of these three works are wholly distinct, and they take up the vast theme of Shakspeare in ways altogether different. Mr. Smith's book has the vast merit of brevity; it is, indeed, so brief—covering sixty small pages only—as almost to come

within the class of primers. A man of his literary training might easily have dictated all the original part of it in two working days, leaving it to a secretary to copy out the illustrative extracts which constitute its larger portions. He covers the life of Shakspeare as a whole, but does it microscopically; Mr. Godwin, on the other hand, breaks up the life into little bits, rearranges them to suit himself, and then applies the microscope to each part, illustrating each by a sonnet. Each of these authors, however, does his work seriously, and is no severer on the work of others than the vexed subject of Shakspeare seems inevitably to require. One learns at least to recognize the comparative courtesy and humility of Messrs. Smith and Godwin when one turns to Mr. Edwards, who supplies on every page some epithet of opprobrium for the traditional Shakspeare, and yet has epithets enough left to distribute them with impartial vehemence upon all who hold by such a tradition. If he shows any gradation in his wrath, he directs it with especial force against two classes, namely, professors and women; the latter class being represented by Mrs. Caroline H. Dall, and the former by such critics as Messrs. Fiske, Rolfe, and Wendell. If there be among these a supreme object of hostility, it is Professor Wendell, in regard to whom Mr. Edwards expresses himself with a frankness surpassed only by that bestowed on Shakspeare, when he mentions it as the crowning merit of certain authors that "they have cooked Shakspeare's goose" (p. 265).

If we now ask ourselves what is really added by such a book as that of Mr. Edwards towards solving the Shakspeare perplexity, the reply must be that he has given absolutely nothing. There stands the perpetual wonder: the author of dramas which are at the head of all literature received unquestionably no just appreciation in his own day, and at any rate won no supreme honors; he sprang from obscurity, and never wholly emerged from it during life. This fact remains the same after reading a hundred commentaries. On the other hand, there are the dramas themselves; it is certain that some one wrote them, and how does it solve the perplexity if we print a different name or a dozen names on the title-page? If you put the name of Lord Bacon there, you encounter a greater puzzle than any other—that the most conspicuous man of his time should have kept his own secret and successfully counterfeited obscurity. Mr. Edwards does not go so far as this assertion. The only positive hypothesis he puts forward is that there may have been a syndicate of authors; in other words, in order to get rid of the difficult theory of a single Shakspeare, he conjectures that there may have been a dozen. To abolish a single world's wonder he conjures up a copartnership of wonders, and calls them (p. 309) "the band." In designating this band he falls back on one of the few modern critics for whom he has a good word, Mr. T. W. White, author of 'Our English Homer' (London, 1892), who easily settles the perplexity by distributing the plays, some to Greene, some to Nash, others to Marlowe, Peele, Drayton, Daniel, or Lodge, vouchsafing to Lord Bacon the authorship of 'Hamlet' only. These possible authors were, as Mr. Edwards exultingly says, "every man of them from the universities" (p. 308). But have the English universities proved themselves, in a series

of years, to afford so unerring a source of supply for great dramatic works as to justify us in assembling a syndicate of former undergraduates to claim all that bears the name of Shakspeare? If so, why not imagine some future Mr. Edwards as conjuring up a band of similar college-bred men who shall be credited with Keats's 'Endymion,' steeped as it is in classical allusion, in order to displace the half-taught stable-boy who has hitherto been credited with its authorship?

The fact conceded by Mr. Edwards, that many early plays, not now included in Shakspeare's writings, were published under his name in the original quartos (p. 71), is an admission that this name was at least familiar to the printers. It recognizes Shakspeare as at least a favorite *nom de guerre* among the dramatic wits, and we surely know that imitators in all ages have as keen a scent for real prominence as boys and blackbirds, according to Goethe, have for cherries. All neglect of Shakspeare by contemporary authors, all attempts to prove that, "up to 1598, the Shaksper myth had not got a start" (p. 75), sink into insignificance before the fact, not disputed by anybody, that during that period publisher after publisher put the name of the poet on books he never wrote, in order to sell them. As for the miscellaneous knowledge implied in Shakspeare's plays, there is more of common sense in the view taken by Professor Wendell than in all the ridicule heaped upon it by his critic. Dr. A. R. Wallace echoes the same thing, where he says of Shakspeare, that, whatever else he was, "he was a transcendent genius, and it is the special quality of genius to be able to acquire and assimilate knowledge . . . under conditions that, to ordinary men would be impossible." This does not imply that Shakspeare was a miracle, for, even if we stop short of genius, we constantly see in the world around us that the men of encyclopædic information are not necessarily the college graduates; they are simply men who have a quick ear for knowledge, and whose memory holds on to everything. It is, after all, a secondary gift; and when we are dealing with the mind that created 'Hamlet' and 'Macbeth,' it is hardly worth while to pronounce it quite incredible that he could use words so learned as "deracinate" and "oppugnancy" (pp. 203, 205).

Of all this oft-told and unsatisfactory tale, Mr. Godwin, in his book, gives us nothing. He is not free from that habit of vehement personality into which the Shaksperian critic is almost always led, and in which he is wont to be surpassed only by the professional politician. Mr. Godwin, for instance, ranks Professor Dowden almost at the head of Shakspeare's editors (p. 30), but cannot resist the temptation, within twenty pages, to characterize Dowden's whole interpretation of the Sonnets, after quoting it in full, as "this farrago of nonsense, contradiction, sycophancy, and degradation" (p. 49). But he soon, fortunately for the reader, gets beyond these preliminary passages at arms, and deals only with two authorities, Shakspeare, namely, and himself; a contest in which, it must be said, Shakspeare gets the worst of it. The dramatist is, indeed, at great disadvantage because he does not appear at the witness-stand in person, but in the so-called paraphrase which Mr. Godwin provides for him. He states his own method fearlessly and frankly: he went

through the whole body of Sonnets, paraphrasing them in prose, and producing something much like the old-fashioned Latin paraphrase of Virgil printed for the aid of students in the Delphin editions. He says: "Of course, in making these paraphrases, I varied the language when clearness of meaning appeared to me necessary, but in no case substituted a wholly new text except by confessed conjecture" (p. 55). What he means by such conjecture is evident from the very first sonnet quoted, where he alters, "and sable curls all silvered o'er with white," to "its sable color silvered o'er with white," and gives in a note (p. 74), as a sufficient explanation of this change, his thinking it would read better. It sounds harmless, but a little reflection will show that it is very much as if an attorney, appearing before a court, should claim the right to base his argument, not on the certified documents in the case, but upon his own paraphrases. It would not be very hard to win cases if one could remould every document into something which the counsel thought would read better.

What still further arouses distrust in this method of paraphrasing the documents is when the author allows himself to deal in the same way with other poets, as where he speaks thus of Shelley (p. 168):

"Every modern reader, in this connection, will recall Shelley's magnificent 'Hymn to Intellectual Beauty,' in which he avers that 'The awful shadow of some unseen power floats, though unseen, among us, visiting this various world with an inconstant wing-like summer wind that creeps from flower to flower, most dear, yet dearer for its mystery.'"

It is obvious that to begin by denuding a poem of its garment of metrical form is to make the next step very easy, viz., of altering the words by inserting something which would read better. This perilous familiarity soon leads to utter disregard of that element of beauty which, as it is essential to the production of a poem, should also be foremost in the discussion of it. This is almost wholly wanting in the discussion of the Sonnets by the present author. In his whole volume of 306 pages, we can find only two instances of recognition of the literary value of any particular sonnet (pp. 109, 224). Granting that his primary object was exegesis, it seems strange that he should not, among one hundred and fifty sonnets, have felt more than two which tempted him into a compliment, were it only as Charles Lamb bought George Dyer's epic, on the ground that there must be at least one good line in a volume of four hundred pages. Sonnets that have been the delight of every poetic mind, as those beginning

"Shall I compare thee to a Summer's day,"
"When to the sessions of sweet silent thought,"
"That time of year thou mayst in me behold,"
"When in the chronicle of wasted time,"

are here passed by without a word, except such as help to number each in a new order, for which the next critic may substitute still another. What have those exquisite productions done that they should in succession, like prison convicts, forfeit their very names and receive only a distinguishing number when placed in their cells? They forfeit their names, not only because there is no index in the volume, but because each is translated into modern prose and appears in disguise.

Nor is this all, for Mr. Godwin, in his zeal to interweave the Sonnets, has inserted phrases

referring from one to another, such as are not to be found in the originals. Thus, we have, "Nor shall my own glass ever persuade me that I am old, so long as youth and thou, as we have just seen, are of one date" (p. 101). This represents the first two lines of the sonnet—

"My glass shall not persuade me I am old
As long as youth and thou are of one date."

The "as we have just seen" is contributed by the editor, and yet not distinguished by brackets or by italics. Again, on the opposite page, we have, "Thy summer is the summer of love, which is perennial, and does not fade. Besides, and here the enthusiastic and self-confident poet breaks out: Death," etc. This is a substitute for the verses;

"But thy eternal summer shall not fade
Nor lose possession of that fair thou owest,
Nor shall death brag thou wanderest in his shade";

and it will be seen that one whole line is left out and the commentator's phrase substituted—again without brackets or italics. It is also worth mentioning that after this paraphrase the editor cheerfully continues, in order to bring the whole affair within easy reach of common life;

"As the lad repeated these lines to the girl, either at Shottery, her home, or in his father's house, she, if she was the woman I take her to have been, threw her arms about him and gave him some hearty kisses, exclaiming, 'O, Willie, boy! if ever there was a poet, you are one; but, alas! you make too much of my good looks, for remember that I am older than you are, and beauty is a thing that soon decays'" (p. 100).

Far be it from us to underrate the amount of labor which has been bestowed upon this book, or the essential candor and honesty of its distinguished and venerable author. But it is the duty of a sincere critic to consider the value as well as the motive of an author's work; and, in this case, that consideration must peculiarly enter. Grant that it is desirable, were it possible, to ascertain the precise order and object of each of Shakspeare's Sonnets, the trouble is that Mr. Godwin leaves us at the end as at the beginning in the conviction, which was Richard Grant White's final attitude, that, in their present order, they are "distractingly and remedilessly confused." All modern efforts are thwarted by what Mr. Godwin calls, in one of his boldest phrases, "the obliterating enmity of death" (p. 224); the witnesses are dead, the documentary evidence is lost; and, as we turn page after page of this well-intentioned book, we find only a series of guesses, no worse than those of the previous guessers, but no better than those of the next. We are at the end, as at the beginning, face to face with that yet unsolved enigma called Shakspeare.

A History of American Privateers. By Edgar Stanton Maclay. D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Maclay, evidently appreciating the close connection between the history of our navy and the story of American privateers, has followed his new edition of the 'History of the American Navy' with a history of that other most notable feature of our early maritime wars, and the most complete account of American privateering yet published; in fact, the only one worthy of mention, except that of Coggeshall, which was confined to the war of 1812, and is now, we believe, out of print.

Privateers and privateering began early

on the Atlantic sea-coast. Colonial armed vessels were fitted out as early as 1646, while in 1652, as Mr. W. P. Sheffield, in his address before the Rhode Island Historical Society, states, the colony of Rhode Island was authorized by the home Government to issue commissions to private armed vessels against the persons and property of the Dutch, then at war with England. Rhode Island seems to have been the nursery of privateers in the colonial days, as well as in the time of the Revolutionary war, and the Browns and De Wolfs of that colony and day attended to other matters than the establishment of universities and the recruiting of the ministry of the churches. This part of the history under review does not seem to be as full as it might have been, considering that the suggestive address of Mr. Sheffield and the other records of the Rhode Island Historical Society were at the service of the author. There was somewhat of a blend between the slaver and the privateer in those early days, which disappeared in the time of our independence. The custom of taking a horoscope before sailing existed as late as 1745, when two large privateers, owned by Godfrey Malbone, sailed from Newport on the day cast—Friday, December the 24th—in a violent snow-storm, and were never afterwards heard from. Tradition says that the top of the old stone mill in Touro Park, Newport, was used to cast the horoscope.

In the two wars with England, however, is traced the best-known and most brilliant history of our privateering. Letters of marque and reprisal were, it is true, issued also during our quasi-war with France from 1798 to 1801, but these were used more particularly for prize-making incidental and secondary to voyages of trade.

Our regular navy in the Revolutionary war, exclusive of the Lake Champlain flotilla, numbered less than fifty vessels of all kinds, while our privateers must have constituted a thousand craft. The author varies in his statements as to their number, giving 792 in his preface and 1,151 in his concluding pages, with captures variously reckoned from 343 to about 600 in number. The capture and destruction of the regular men-of-war of the American navy in this war reduced its number gradually to but seven in 1782; and as the assistance of the French navy after the alliance was but occasional, very much naval work fell to the privateers, and they became a school of training for the future navy of the United States. Barney, Barry, Alexander Murray, Truxton, Preble, the Decatur, Biddle, Cassin, and David Porter are historic naval names, which were also connected with these Revolutionary privateers. The military results of privateering were naturally great with these men in the service, and the capture of British vessels, men-of-war, transports, and supply-vessels contributed materially to the final success of the colonists. Sixteen vessels of war and sixteen thousand prisoners from all branches of the land and sea forces of Great Britain captured by privateers make a brave showing. The interruption of communications between England and the North American Coast and West Indian possessions, and the raids made in the waters surrounding the British Isles, created a cry for peace which penetrated the walls of the houses of Parliament.

The second war with Great Britain, however, witnessed the high-water mark of

American privateering through a combination of circumstances never likely to happen again. Speed in our merchant vessels had been fostered at the sacrifice of carrying capacity before the outbreak of hostilities, in order to avoid search and impressment by British vessels of war; also by the forced running trade to France and the West Indies in the Napoleonic wars. When, therefore, ordinary commerce was closed, our merchantmen, as they existed, became privateers. Notwithstanding all the inducements to steer clear of the British vessels of the regular navy, there were a number of instances in which our privateers gave battle to them, and so raised the American privateer and privateersman to a high position in the maritime forces of the day. Among the actions were those of the *Decatur* under Dixon, with the English cruiser *Dominica*; the *Prince de Neufchâtel* and the British frigate *Endymion*; the *Montgomery* and the *Surinam*; while most brilliant of all was the well-known defence of the privateer *General Armstrong* in the harbor of Fayal against the attack of a British squadron, which, unsuccessful though it was, can be classed among the most brilliant events in maritime warfare, the English losses amounting to sixty-three killed and one hundred and ten wounded.

But privateering, considered in its broad sense, had even in those days the defects which, with modern changes, make it impossible at the present time. No one has discussed the question of privateering in the second war with England more comprehensively than Henry Adams in his 'History of the United States from 1813 to 1817.' He concludes that if the Government had kept twenty sloops-of-war constantly at sea destroying commerce, the result towards the enemy would have been the same, while the regular service would have been fostered rather than injured as it was by privateering. Seamen naturally preferred the shorter and more profitable cruise of the privateer to the discipline, fighting, and poor pay of the man-of-war. The scarcity of men obtainable for our frigates was a serious evil: the *Constitution* was nearly lost by this cause at the beginning of the war, and the loss of the *Chesapeake*, it is claimed, was largely due to the determination of the old crew to quit the Government service for that of privateers.

In the war of 1812 came the first opportunity during our existence as an independent state to prove our capacity to excel upon the element open to all the world; and we proved it not only by our fighting upon the high seas and the lakes, but by the creation of the privateer. "Beautiful beyond anything then known in naval construction," says Henry Adams, "such vessels roused boundless admiration, but defied imitators."

Mrs. Delany (Mary Granville). A Memoir (1700-1788). Compiled by George Paston. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1900.

There is to-day a more tolerant view of the historical interest of such a record as Mrs. Delany's 'Memoirs' than when, in 1861, *Blackwood's* reviewer dismissed and damned it for a "female book." Decidedly, on its first appearance in six volumes (price five pounds), it fell in the wide and growing category of biographies whose sheer length is

out of all proportion to the part played in the world's drama by the persons concerned. That edition is practically unattainable, and there is every reason why, in her reincarnation in one volume, abridged and intelligently edited, so vivacious a lady should win a new lease of life. Her lively journal of the court and social life of a century so dull is worth reading, if only for the light it throws on the minor antiquities of dress and manners, and for the curious pieces of gossip that only a clever woman knows how to retail.

Mary Granville was the daughter of the famous house of Grenville or Granville, and an immediate descendant of the immortal Sir Richard of the *Revenge*. Her father, who was a younger son and poor, intrusted her to his prosperous brother, the first Lord Lansdowne; and at seventeen, to her great and freely expressed disinclination, Mary was married to a rich old Cornishman named Pendarves. Then follows the hackneyed eighteenth-century story of the jealous husband with a young and beautiful wife exposed alternately to the ennui of a remote Cornish grange and the temptations of London society. The wit and beauty of Mrs. Pendarves were steadied by strong common sense and good nature, so that when, at twenty-four, she was left a widow, she had fairly earned her freedom. She won all hearts, but, except for a passing fancy for Lord Baltimore, kept her own affections completely disengaged to the last. During a visit to Ireland in 1731 she entered on an intellectual flirtation with Swift, which was maintained by correspondence till his death. Mrs. Pendarves, who was troubled by a carefully concealed hankering after learning—on one occasion, being caught in the act of "studying geometry," she "blushed and looked excessively silly"—was handicapped in her intercourse with Swift by her peculiar veneration of genius; and her letters to the Dean of St. Patrick's, written chiefly in 1733 and included in the published 'Letters' of Swift, are self-conscious and stilted. No wonder that he writes (p. 89), "Nothing vexes me so much with relation to you as that, with all my disposition to find faults, I was never once able to fix upon anything that I could find amiss, although I watched you narrowly." The letters written from Dublin, when Mrs. Pendarves was in constant intercourse with Swift and his friend and (later) executor, Dr. Delany, are full of entertaining descriptions of the manners, the dress, the dirt, and interminable dinners of the Irish gentry in Swift's circle.

Unlike her cousin, the beautiful Duchess of Queensberry, whose eccentricities and championship of the poet Gay figure largely in these pages, and who never changed her dress for the fashion, Mrs. Pendarves was devoted to finery and fashions, and taxed her slender fortune to keep pace with such costumes as that of Selina, Lady Huntington, which appeared at a Court ball in 1739:

"Her petticoat was of black velvet embroidered with chenille, the pattern a large stone vase filled with ramping flowers that spread almost over a breadth of the petticoat from the bottom to the top; between each vase of flowers was a pattern of gold shells and foliage, embossed and most heavily rich. The gown was white satin, embroidered also with chenille mixed with gold, no vase on the sleeve, but two or three on the tail" (p. 106).

Here was a gown after her own heart:

"It was of white satin embroidered, the

bottom of the petticoat brown hills covered with all sorts of weeds, and every breadth had an old stump of a tree, that ran up almost to the top of the petticoat, broken and ragged, and worked with brown chenille, round which twined nasturtiums, ivy, honeysuckles, periwinkles, and all sorts of twining flowers, which spread and covered the petticoat; vines with the leaves variegated as you have seen them by the sun, all rather smaller than nature, which made them look very light; the robings and facings were little green banks covered with all sorts of weeds, and the sleeves and the rest of the gown loose twining branches of the same sort as those on the petticoat. Many of the leaves were finished with gold, and part of the stumps of the trees looked like the gilding of the sun. I never saw a piece of work so prettily fancied, and am quite angry with myself for not having the same thought, for it is infinitely handsomer than mine, and could not have cost much more" (p. 114).

After her unromantic marriage in 1743 with Dr. Delany, for whom her *beau-père* promptly secured the Deanery of Down, Mrs. Delany's life in Dublin and Down was uneventful, but on her husband's death in 1768 she returned to London life with her interest but little abated by years. She lived for the most part with the Duchess of Portland, where she quickly became intimate with George III. and Queen Charlotte. She was treated by them with peculiar consideration, and it was in a house at Windsor, given to her by them and carefully fitted up for her use by the King himself, that Mrs. Delany died at the age of eighty-eight, having played an active part in court life almost to the last hour. Her life and letters cover much the same period as do those of Maria Josepha Stanley. But Mrs. Delany was a childless woman of fashion, and in her memoirs such items as that on p. 178, "Earrings go round the neck and tie with bows and ends behind. Nightgowns are worn without hoops"—indicate a very different range of interests from Maria Stanley's, with her large family and several country estates to manage. They both held the orthodox ladylike views of current literature that were considered becoming to a female of the period. Mrs. Delany writes of 'Tristram Shandy' that neither she nor the Dean will read it themselves, but they are content to think it a wicked work, and to lament that "it diverts more than it offends."

From the mass of gossip about distinguished men and women, we give one anecdote of historical interest:

"The Duke and Duchess of Marlborough had upwards of £90,000 per annum in places, besides Blenheim and all their family and children in places. They would not even pay the taxes of the house granted them at Whitehall, and when the Duke made a campaign he was always furnished with every material of linen, etc., at the Queen's expense. The Prince Eugene once, when he received a letter from the Duke, gave it to another to read to him, as it was a difficult hand to read; and the person said: 'The Duke puts no tittles upon the "I's." 'Oh,' said the Prince, 'it saves his Grace's ink.'"

Mr. Paston's editing has been well done, the binding, print, and paper are excellent, and the book is enriched with admirable reproductions of portraits of some of the most celebrated members of Mrs. Delany's circle.

Economies of Modern Cookery. By M. M. Mallock. Macmillan Co.

First Aid to the Young Housekeeper. By

Christine Terhune Herrick. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The average cookbook is of little use to residents of the country, removed from sources of abundant and varied supply, with the sole exception of recipes for sweets, which call for ingredients that are procurable at almost every village store. Those for soups, sauces, and entrées, on the other hand, are of a character that only the well-equipped purveyor of a large town can provide. With this difficulty removed, we are still confronted with the weird and involved phraseology in which culinary formulas are embalmed, and which can be interpreted only by those who are more or less learned and experienced in the mysteries of cookery. Mr. Mallock, in his 'Economies of Modern Cookery,' seeks to remedy this defective method of presenting recipes, and to render them intelligible and easily carried out. His success in this direction is unequivocal.

He starts out with the idea that a plain cook in a small household, especially in the country, does not need to learn much in the way of treating truffles and ortolans, any more than the mistress who employs a thoroughly competent *chef* needs to bother about what to do with the cold mutton. It must be said for the author that this is a distinctively English book, written for a British audience, and much that he has to tell will not be readily understood by Americans who have not some knowledge of English social customs, as when he says that he writes for those Englishmen and women who, when they have left the family roof-tree and settled in homes of their own, find themselves forced to live on incomes diminutive in comparison with those of their parents. Then they have to suffer the hardship of contenting themselves with the services of only four or five domestics instead of the twenty or thirty that were employed at the homestead. Under these deplorable conditions the victims are constantly reminded of their poverty by the meals put before them. With a thorough knowledge of what good cookery consists in, they conceive it impossible, with their present means and small retinue of four or five servants, to make any approach to it. Since they cannot have the best, they yield to hopeless despair, and suffer more or less in silence, according to temperament and length of duration of the conjugal relation. The idea of the author is to inspire these gastronomic pessimists with courage, to dispel their fatalistic theory, and to show them how, with the assistance of discriminating taste, some talent for organization, and an amount of technical knowledge not hard to acquire, they may economically secure a cuisine which in most particulars will equal the best that unlimited outlay can command.

Those of Mr. Mallock's readers who have more or less knowledge of the culinary art will be delighted with the skill with which he makes good this promise. His explanation of the making of a béchamel sauce offers a conspicuous example of his lucid treatment of a recipe when he gives and explains one—which is rare, as his purpose, as has been stated, is only to make intelligible certain formulas contained in kitchen compilations. He offers one bit of information which will be of interest to those who are in the habit of making a mayonnaise sauce—the reason why, through the mixture of the

yolk of egg and oil, the peculiar jelly-like texture is obtained. This is caused by the division of the oil into very minute globules, each enclosed in its little film of egg; the whole thus forming a sort of solid egg and oil froth. The author follows the usual plan of taking up in succession all culinary processes, from soups to sweets, with details of household expenditure and management.

A man once asked a friend on what day he should marry. He was told to select Friday, the 13th of the month, for then "he would have something to blame it on." The ill omen may now be averted by marrying a woman who takes to heart the admirable instruction contained in 'First Aid to the Young Housekeeper.' It is a book of reference that will remove doubt in moments of domestic bewilderment. It is so agreeably put together that it transforms monotonous drudgery into recreation. It makes "Building the Kitchen Fire" a feverish joy; "Laundry Work and Washing" a longed-for festival; "Starch, Stains, and Ironing" an intermezzo of marital harmony; while "Washing Dishes and Sundries" has the fascination of "rag-time" melody.

China: The Long-lived Empire. By Eliza Ruhamah Scidmore. The Century Co. 8vo, pp. 466.

Miss Scidmore, with experience, knowledge, and penetration, avoids the mistakes of most writers on China. Evidently the average female traveller and author has served her as a woful example. It is hard to tell, when reading her book, which subjective element, sprightliness or modesty, is more manifest. Her pages are rich in vivacity and glow, often sparkling with a wit that makes reading of them very easy. Nevertheless, despite all the information given and the experience gained during her seven visits to China, all made within the last fifteen years, this is rather a book that distills the wisdom of many previous writers than one of original investigation. Hence it serves better for immediate reading than for reference. The value of it is in its timeliness. Its pictures of Tientsin and Peking are wonderfully detailed and bright with local color. Although it contains a chapter on Canton and several on the Yangtze Valley, including lively episodes of wayfaring and adventure, yet it is essentially a sketch of travel in northeastern China. What we are told about the empire and the natives is presented as the result of accurate and critical reading of the best writers on China.

Her personal narrative reveals a valorous woman whose senses are very keen, and who perseveres through difficulties, bravely striving to find the ideal and pathetic. This she does, in spite of "the true flavor of China, that heavy, half-sickening smell of bean oil, of incense and opium smoke, and of filthy human beings," which pervades the air and dispels any illusion. Yet her conclusion is pessimistic enough. She will even have it that "no one has penetrated, or uncovered, or satisfactorily analyzed the Chinese brain, or whatever lies behind those blank, solid, immovable yellow countenances; no one has comprehended the temperament so opposite, so unsympathetic, nor unravelled the threads of a character too complex and tangled, too contradictory and inconsistent, too baffling and evasive, too Asiatic for us ever to have insight there.

There is no starting-point from which to arrive at an understanding; always the eternal, impassable, gulf yawns between the mind and temperament of Occident and Orient." After this deliverance, on her initial and closing pages, by an author who, after all, seems to us to be writing more to impress her audience in a Boston parlor or her readers in Yankee land, it is well to add her own quotation from "one serious observer," who has been "twenty years trying to find out how they [the Chinese] are governed": "The longer we stay here the less we see, the less we are fitted to judge." Suffice it to say, over against this, that, with astonishing uniformity and persistency, the even more "serious" observers who live closest to the people and most altruistically work for their uplifting, are more and more confirmed in the idea that the Chinese is a normal man.

Calendar of Letter-Books; from the Archives of the City of London. Letter Book B, circa A. D. 1275-1312. Edited by Reginald R. Sharpe, D.C.L. London. 1900.

A brief notice of Letter-Book A appeared in the *Nation* of September 14, 1899, when that volume had recently been published. Of the present volume the editor says in his preface that the greater part of it, "like its predecessor, is devoted to the record of recognizances. . . . Besides these recognizances . . . there are a variety of other matters recorded here which, if not of national interest, at least serve to illustrate civic life and the municipal government of London in the thirteenth century. Thus, at the outset we have a record of inquests or trials by jury (the jury consisting of no less than four representatives from each of the wards) held in 1281. . . . The names of the offenders and of their several trades alone are worth studying." And much else; but these words sufficiently indicate the character of the volume for our present purposes—at least, if it be added that it has also records of proceedings of larger interest, such as those relating to the dealings of Edward I. with the liberties of the City of London, and of others touching the weights and measures of London, and the proceedings and offices of the local coroners, which may interest students of history and legal antiquities.

The multitude of recognizances here, as in the earlier volume, bears interesting witness to the ordinary way in which men incurred obligations, and preserved the record of them at a time when the practice of writing was unusual.

Among the proper names, Richard *le Kiserre* is accounted for as indicating a maker of "cushes" for the thighs. "Roger the Shearman" is explained as belonging with "William *le Retundur*," as a *retonsor*, a shearman, or shearer of cloth. Is this the original of our Roger Sherman? It would be interesting to know. John Amys, Richard de Ware, and many another name will attract attention. Geoffroy de Burdeus shows the mediæval English pronunciation of Bordeaux; or *Burdeus*, as it is sometimes written in the Year Books.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bearne, Catherine. *Pictures of the Old French Court: Jeanne de Bourbon, Isabeau de Bavière, Anne de Bretagne.* E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.
Berger, F. *French Method*, 1900. New York: The Author. 75c.
Brooke, S. A. *English Literature*. Macmillan. \$1.

Brooks, Amy. *Randy's Summer: A Story for Girls*. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
 Browning, Elizabeth Barrett. *Complete Poetical Works*. (Cambridge ed.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2.
 Burroughs, J. *Squirrels and Other Fur-Bearers*. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
 Colville, W. J. *Fate Mastered, Destiny Fulfilled*. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
 Counsel upon the Reading of Books. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
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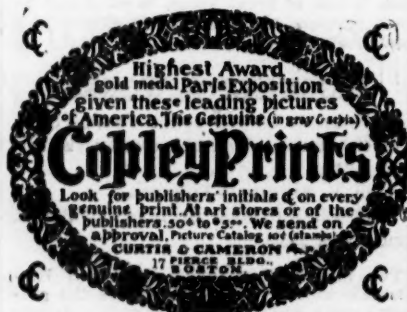
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